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Digital competence of English language teachers

Master thesis

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Zásady pro vypracování

Cílem diplomové práce je definovat pojem digitální kompetence učitelů anglického jazyka a zjistit, zda a jakým způsobem se učitelům anglického jazyka na základní škole daří integrovat ICT do výuky anglického jazyka. V teoretické části práce diplomandka zasadí problematiku digitální kompetence učitelů anglického jazyka do širšího historického, strategického a kurikulárního kontextu učitelství a vzdělávání. V praktické části pak bude na základě východisek definovaných v teoretické části prostřednictvím dotazovacích a observačních technik zjišťovat, zda a jak učitelé anglického jazyka na základní škole integrují ICT do své výuky, tj. jaká je jejich digitální kompetence.

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V Pardubicích dne 30. listopadu 2021

Prohlašuji:

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ANNOTATION

This diploma thesis deals with the digital competence of teachers in a basic school (primary and lower-secondary). In the theoretical part, the characteristics of a teacher are defined from a general point of view together with the competences of a teacher. Furthermore, the terms are put into the context of English language teaching and together, they are described from the historical, curricular, and strategic points of view. Finally, in the last section of the theoretical part, the possible ways of using digital technology in English lessons are described in more detail. The empirical part of this thesis describes research conducted with three secondary school teachers. This research works with data collected with the use of group interview and subsequent observations. The research observes subjective attitudes towards digital technologies in English lessons and the level of digital competence of designated teachers.

KEYWORDS

English teacher, teacher competences, digital competence, ICT in English teaching

NÁZEV

Digitální kompetence učitelů angličtiny

ANOTACE

Tato diplomová práce pojednává o digitální kompetenci učitelů na základní škole (na prvním I druhém stupni). V teoretické části je nejprve všeobecně definována a popsána osobnost učitele spolu s jeho kompetencemi. Dále jsou definované pojmy zasazeny do kontextu výuky anglického jazyka, který je spolu s digitální kompetencí učitele popsán z hlediska historie a dále kurikulárních a strategických dokumentů. V poslední části teoretického úseku práce jsou pak detailněji popsány možné způsoby používání digitálních technologií v hodinách anglického jazyka. Praktická část této práce zpracovává výzkum provedený se třemi učiteli základní školy. Tento výzkum se opírá o data získaná ze skupinového rozhovoru a následných observací. Výzkum se zabývá postoji k digitálním technologiím a následně úrovní digitální kompetence těchto učitelů.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

Učitel anglického jazyka, kompetence učitele, digitální kompetence, technologie ve výuce anglického jazyka

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

CC – communicative competence

CLL – Cooperative language learning

CLT – Communicative language teaching

DC – digital competence

DT – digital technology

ELT – English language teaching

EU – European Union

ICT – Information and communication technologies

INTEF - The National Institute of Educational Technologies and Teacher Training

MŠMT – Ministerstvo školství, mládeže a tělovýchovy

MW – Microsoft Word

RVP ZV – Rámcový vzdělávací program pro základní vzdělávání

SLT – Situational language teaching

TBLT – Task-based language teaching

TPACK – Technological pedagogical and content knowledge

Introduction

As we are all aware, the world goes through constant changes. Time goes faster, people are getting lazier, and at the same time, gadgets and technologies are becoming more user-friendly. However, those changes are not visible only in people's everyday life. These changes show themselves in medicine, where machines get more precise and can do much more demanding surgeries. They may be seen in entertainment as special effects that are unbelievably realistic these days. However, the most important changes for this thesis are those in education.

As technology goes forward in any other field, so it does in education. Gone are the days when students had only paper, a textbook, and a pen. Nowadays, the computers are used for various purposes in the classroom. Based on this fact, teachers on all levels of education must learn how to work with the technologies in the classroom so they can provide their learners with various learning opportunities. This thesis, however, does not observe all the levels of education but only the primary and lower-secondary schools. Therefore, the aim of this thesis is to find out, if nowadays English teachers use technology in their lessons and if they use them in various ways that provide the learners with new opportunities to learn the language. Moreover, teachers' subjective attitudes towards digital technologies are observed. In other words, the aim is to find out how are the technologies perceived by primary and lower-secondary English teachers and if those teachers are digitally competent.

Concerning the structure of this thesis, the theoretical part is divided into three chapters. The first chapter of the theoretical part contains information about teachers and their qualities, and competences in general. This chapter is further divided into three subchapters. The first subchapter deals with teachers and their qualities. In the second subchapter, the competences of a teacher and key competences of the learners are mentioned. Even though the key competences are not directly connected to the qualities of the teacher, they are listed here, because to lead the children to the development of these competences, it is important that they developed them as well. Finally, in the third subchapter, digital competence, which is important for this thesis is described in more detail.

In the second chapter, the context of this thesis is being dealt with. Therefore, the English language teaching is described there. Same as the first chapter, this chapter is also divided into three subchapters. The first subchapter takes the description of a teacher and puts in into the context of ELT, making the general terms from the first chapter a bit more specific. The second subchapter further specifies the competences of a teacher from the point of view of an English

teacher. Finally, the last subchapter deals with ELT in various contexts. The language teaching and learning is observed from a historical, curricular, and strategic point of view. In this chapter, the historical development of teaching methods is observed together with the development of technologies and digital competence.

Finally, the third chapter of the theoretical part deals with digital technologies and their implementation in English lessons. This chapter is further divided into two parts in which digital technologies in English language teaching and learning are connected to developing communicative competence and language skills. In each chapter, there are examples of digital technologies which may be used in various activities.

The second main part of this thesis is the empirical part. The empirical part is divided into four main chapters. The first chapter of this part contains a description of the methodology of the research. In this chapter, the planning, preparation, and conduction of the research are described. The type of the research is defined and the tools for data collection are listed.

The next chapter deals only with the first tool, the interview. In this chapter, the types of questions are specified. Subsequently, the piloting process is described, and the changes are listed. In the second subchapter, the process of interviewing is observed. Finally, in the last subchapter, the data gathered from the interview are analyzed and summarized.

In the third chapter of the empirical part, the focus moves towards the second tool – the observations. Same as in the previous chapter, there are three subchapters as well. The first specifies the observations by placing them into the context of the research. The second subchapter deals again with piloting. The process of piloting is described, and the changes are named. The last subchapter analyzes and summarizes the data collected in the observation sheets.

Finally, in the last chapter of the empirical part, all the collected data are observed and put together with the aim of answering the research questions. In this chapter, the data from the interview and observations are combined, and the final discussion takes place.

THEORETICAL PART

1. Teacher in a digital world

Nowadays, the digital technologies are ever-present. Almost every person carries a portable device with them on every step. These devices are mobile phones, which people use every day to contact their friends or families, they are laptops that are used for work, creating documents. More importantly, they enable people to reopen those documents and edit them later. They are also tablets and the files in them, which serve as a safe place for important information from work documents to dates of family events and notes taken on any occasion. In other words, digital technology can be defined as any "electronic tool, system, device, and resource that generates, stores or processes data." (Education and Training, 2019) Manfred Spitzer (2017, 13) agrees with this definition and lists not only systems such as Google, but also specific devices such as computers, smartphones, gaming devices, etc.

Given the fact that people are used to using digital technology on an everyday basis, it is no surprise that digital technology made its way even to education. Therefore, teachers are affected as well. That is why this chapter observes the role of teachers in nowadays education and the evolvement of their digital competence which is closely connected to changes that were caused by the increasing popularity of digital technologies and their fast development.

1.1. The qualities of a teacher

As every person is different, the same can be said about teachers. Even though all teachers should undergo the same educational program, which prepares them for the profession of a teacher, every one of them has a different life strategy, different approach towards the learners, they use different methods based on their personal preferences, etc. There is no reason to put all in one box and say that one type of teacher is the right one and the other is bad.

This statement is in correspondence with Vlanečič Zuljan, who claims that teachers go through:

> Meaningful and lifelong learning process, in which they develop their conceptions and change their teaching practice; it is a process that involves the teacher's personal, professional, and social dimensions and represents the teacher's progress towards independent and responsible critical decision-making and behavior. (Valenčič Zuljan 2001, 131)

Průcha underlines this with his statement that the range of personal and professional characteristics is so wide and only a few of them may directly affect the quality of the teacher. Moreover, he claims that teachers go through different stages of professional identity ("a

teacher who is still a student, a starting teacher, an expert and a conservative teacher")[1] and each of them may affect the attitudes of the teacher and form a different credo for their future teaching practice (Průcha 2017, 191). Therefore, based on all mentioned above, it is rather impossible to list a strict definition of a teacher.

However, Malach (2002, 44) claims that there are certain qualities that every teacher is supposed to have. Firstly, according to him, the teacher should have a wide range of knowledge from various fields. Secondly, moral standards and attitudes are important because the teacher should be impartial and fair towards the learners. Thirdly, the teacher should be optimistic and patient in terms of the education of the learners and their learning progress. Moreover, to be able to provide the learners with enough opportunities to experience progress, the teacher must be creative and inventive (Malach 2002, 44). Průcha agrees and adds a few points concerning professional qualities such as the ability to organize lessons, and high expertise of the main subject of the teacher (Průcha 2017, 193). This field of expertise could be seen as Shulman's theory of content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman 1986).

As was mentioned above, the definition of the role of the teachers is not so easy to be given. However, the existence of lists of qualities of the teacher such as those mentioned in the previous paragraph provides a clear picture that even though the exact characteristics of the teacher are not strictly defined, there are still some expectations the teacher should meet. These expectations may be called competences. They are not only the mixture of qualities on the personal and professional level that were listed above, but also activities that teachers learned in their preparatory studies and should practice in their lessons. If all of this is put together and linked to the aims of educational processes, the list of key competences may be given (Malach 2002, 49). In the next few paragraphs, the competences are viewed from a general point of view together with a brief historical background of the evolution of the competences.

1.2. Competences of the teacher

As was mentioned above, every teacher should have certain qualities that are crucial for the profession as such and for the quality of execution of activities connected to it. These qualities may be called differently. According to Tomková et al. (2012), there can be many synonyms if viewed from a wider point of view. For instance, in foreign countries, terms such as professional knowledge and key competences may be seen as synonyms that are commonly used in the

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[1] Translated by the author

Czech Republic. There are terms such as professional roles and key responsibilities connected to the process of teaching and learning (Tomková et al. 2012, 7). However, given that this thesis deals with education and its quality in the Czech Republic, the term competences will be used throughout this thesis.

Surprisingly, the term competence was not used before the 1990s in the Czech Republic. In history, the problem of the quality of the teaching was rather neglected (see Chapter 2.3.1.) and so were the competences. The change in perception of quality appeared first around the 1990s. In a strategic document called *Bílá kniha*, the quality of teachers was considered the main key to the change in education and therefore, there was a need to create a standard. The European Union tried to create the concepts based on the problems that occurred in the Union at that time. Those fields were protecting democracy, multilingualism, economic challenges, and changes, working opportunities, etc. Based on those problems, the five key competences were created (Tomková et al. 2012, 8; Národní ústav odborného vzdělávání 2012). However, as everything goes forward and evolves, so does the concept of competences. There are not only five key competences, but there are seven of them now, and in upcoming years there are supposed to be eight of them (MŠMT 2023).

If the competences are viewed from a general point of view, some definitions may be provided. Malach defines these competences as a set of certain predispositions, and practical and general skills that are needed for being able to learn or teach a subject (Malach 2002, 49). Another way to define the competences of the teacher is to connect them with the aims of education and with the quality of the teacher. In this case, it may be said that the definition of competences contains "knowledge, skills, attitudes and motivational tendencies and value orientation and create a solid base for the behavior of the teacher" (Tomková et al. 2012, 9)[2].

As was said, these definitions are rather general, and they do not say anything about what the individual competences are. If the division of the competences is taken into consideration, there are many different opinions on how to call and divide them. The first example of the list of competences was created by the EU in a document that was already mentioned above. *Bílá kniha* (2001) contained five main competences which were already mentioned in previous paragraphs. They are political and social competence, cultural competence, communicative competence, technological competence, and learning competence. Later, the competence for solving problems and competence for processing information were added (Národní ústav

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[2] Translated by the author

odborného vzdělávání 2012)[3]. This division seems to be similar to the key competences of the learner.

Malach divides teachers' competences into: Organization, Communication, Motivation, Presentation, and Diagnose. (Malach 2002, 49-54) Spilková and Tomková add didactic, psycho-didactic, and general pedagogical competence and the pedagogical content knowledge (Spilková and Tomková 2010, 40-41) In other words, the list of the competences may differ based on what literature is used as a source. Even though some terms are used by more authors, each author may seem to look at the division from a different point of view and each of them may create a different system of competences.

To give a summarizing list of competences of the teacher, the list from Metodický portál RVP.cz (2011) is used. There, the list contains eleven competences. The first competence gives the teacher the ability to transform the knowledge about their field of study and create educational content that is subsequently connected to another subject at school. The second competence aims at the ability to control the learning processes and support the individualities of the learners connected to the processes. Next competence deals with the school as a company and the administrative work connected to it. The other competences are competence of evaluating – identifying students with individual needs, social and prosocial – classroom environment, communicative – communicating with learners, parents, etc., interventional – dealing with discipline in lessons, and personal competences – psychological and physical health and qualities for being an educator. (Gošová, 2011)

1.2.1. Key competences in RVP ZV

Another possible way to look at the competences of the teacher is from the point of view of the key competences of learners. Because, as mentioned in *Bílá kniha* (2001), these key competences provide the person with the ability to act adequately in a professional environment as well as in a personal environment (MŠMT 2001, 51). In *RVP ZV* there is a list of seven competences that are important mainly for the learners. However, as MŠMT (2021, 10) claims, the acquisition of key competences begins in elementary school and goes all the way to adulthood. Moreover, those competences are the starting point for the constant process of learning in life and for effective participation in social and professional life. (MŠMT 2021, 10) Therefore, the teachers must know these competences, have them developed, and be able to work with them in their profession. Knowing the competences and what they aim at, the teacher

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[3] Translated by the author

might be able to create a suitable space and conditions so the learners may obtain the competences as well and make a useful part of the society.

The first competence mentioned by MŠMT (2021, 10) is the competence for learning. In this case, the teacher must plan and organize lessons suitable for the learning process. Suitable ways, methods, and strategies must be chosen to create conditions for effective learning. Subsequently, the learners must choose those strategies that are most suitable for their learning. According to *RVP ZV*, the willingness to further education is also important in this competence. In addition, members of educational processes must be able to sort information and make links to other fields, terms, and symbols, and systemize their knowledge. Moreover, they must observe their doings and evaluate them so they can be used for personal and professional growth in the future. Finally, this competence also stresses the need of knowing the importance of learning and the aims of the learning process and use the information for evaluation of the effectiveness of the learning process and the self-evaluation of one's progress. (MŠMT 2021, 10)

The second competence listed by MŠMT (2021, 11) is the competence to solve problems. This competence describes the perception of problems inside and outside of the school. Due to this competence the members know how to deal with problems. They notice the problem and think about it, search for the cause, evaluate it, and plan a solution based on previous experience. Also, they search for information about the problem and similarities and differences between the problem and the experience. They find new ways to solve the problem and are not discouraged by being unsuccessful. All that the person does without help with the use of logical thinking and some kind of research, where the gained information is observed and evaluated and subsequently used for solving a problem. Here, the critical thinking is also important. With critical thinking, the person can think about the process of problem-solving and make decisions based on experience and take responsibility for them. Moreover, they can defend their opinions and decisions. (MŠMT 2021, 11)

In the third competence, communication is the most important aspect. Communicative competence places great stress on the ability to express one's thoughts and opinions. It must be done logically and consistently. In this competence, it does not matter whether the communication is written or spoken form. The person must also be able to understand the spoken or written information and react to it, make points, and defend them with suitable arguments. Finally, this competence also mentions the use of all mentioned above to create

strong social bonds that are essential for cooperation with other people in a professional environment, family, or even partnership. (MŠMT 2021, 11)

The social bonds that are mentioned in communicative competence are also an essential part of the fourth competence. This competence deals with social and personal aspects of an individual. It aims at cooperation with other people in the class or everyday life. With their social skills, the members of the group cooperate to create a positive atmosphere based on respect and willingness to help. This competence includes the ability to be a valuable part of the discussion with the aim of the effectiveness of the learning process. Moreover, this competence is also useful to an individual. Each person creates a positive picture of themselves, higher their self-confidence, and makes actions with the aim of self-satisfaction. (MŠMT 2021, 12)

The fifth competence deals with the responsibilities towards society. The basis of this competence is built on respect for the opinions of others and empathy together with the perception of the law and social norms. People are aware of their rights and are aware that they must fight against physical or psychological violence outside and inside of school. They make decisions based on the situation and are willing to help if needed. They understand that it is important to protect their cultural and historical heritage and they have a positive attitude toward arts and other creative activities and actively participate in sports. Finally, they understand the concept of ecology and protect the environment. (MŠMT 2021, 12)

The next competence may be called the competence for work because it deals with the conditions for work and job-related topics. This competence claims that the person can use correct tools and equipment that are related to his or her job, respects the rules, and is able to adapt to new working conditions in case of change. Moreover, they evaluate the final product from the point of view of effectiveness, functionality, and social impact. Based on that, they make decisions about further education or practice. Finally, this competence also supports the knowledge of how to own a business. It states that the person knows the aims and risks of owning a business and works on developing business thinking. (MŠMT 2021, 13)

Finally, the last and newest competence is called digital competence. This competence is mainly oriented to the use of digital technology outside and inside the school. (MŠMT 2021, 13) This competence is essential for this thesis, and, therefore, it is described in more detail in the next subchapter.

1.3. Digital competence

Given the fact that technological knowledge has gone forward quickly in the last few years, the newest of the competences, the digital competence, of students as well as teachers become a very important problem. In the first decade of the 21st century, the first ICT competency standards were developed by UNESCO and the International Society for Technology in Education. This increased the interest in the explorations of models for the development of digital competences of teachers. (Colás-Bravo, Conde-Jiménez, and Reyes-de-Cózar 2019) Neumajer, Růžičková, and Brdička (2018) say that even though:

> The DT has been penetrating the work of teachers with varying degrees of intensity and success. There is still uncertainty about their purposeful implementation. It was only a few years ago that European institutions began to work to create a systematic description of the skills and competences that teachers should be equipped with. (Neumajer, Růžičková, and Brdička 2018)[4]

In other words, even though people have been in contact with some kind of digital technology on an everyday basis for a longer period now, it does not have to mean that they know how to use it safely and effectively. In other words, it does not mean they are digitally competent.

It is important not only to be able to use the DT for entertainment, but also to expand one's educational and professional knowledge (MŠMT 2020, 31). As the other competences were described from the point of view of *RVP ZV* (2021), the digital competence of the pupils is defined as their ability to use commonly used devices inside and outside of the school environment, the pupils should be able to decide which technology is suitable for various types of tasks. They search, gain, share, and critically evaluate data from the digital world. Moreover, they create and edit digital content, and work with various formats. The students should be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of DT and should be able to critically observe the possible benefits and risks of using it. Also, the learners should manipulate the data in a way that does not mean harm to them or anyone else, and they follow the ethics of using DT. (MŠMT 2021, 13) In order to reach this goal and teach the learners how to use DT effectively so that they would be safe and know how to benefit from using DT, the systematic description of digital competence for teachers was necessary.

The systematic document that deals with digital competence is the *European Framework for the Digital Competence of Educators* (Redecker 2017). This systematic document is inspired by the *Unesco ICT Competency Framework for Teachers* (2011). It takes twenty-two

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[4] Translated by the author

competencies of the teacher and divides them into three main parts: professional competence of teachers, pedagogic competence of teachers, and competences of the learners. Those are further divided into six clusters based on the field of teachers' activities. (Neumajer, Růžičková, Brdička 2018)

The first cluster – Professional Engagement – contains teachers' activities such as communication, where digital competence is used to enhance communication between teachers, learners, parents, etc. (Redecker 2017, 19) The second activity of teachers is collaboration, here digital technologies are used to share experience and collaborate with co-workers on a way to innovate their pedagogical practice. Reflective practice is an activity, during which teachers reflect on their pedagogical digital development. The last activity that is included in the first cluster is continuous professional digital development. Here, the DT should be used as a source for one's professional development. (Redecker 2017, 19) This area of digital competence is also mentioned in the *Common Digital Competence Framework for Teachers* (2017). However, the pedagogical development is missing in this framework. (INTEF 2017, 23).

The second cluster is called Digital resources. In this area, the focus is on selecting resources and creating and sharing them. This part of digital competence gives teachers the ability to select digital resources that are suitable for learning objectives, contexts, and groups of learners. Moreover, they should be able to modify those resources and with their use create new digital educational resources. Finally, they should also be able to organize resources and share them with all parties connected to schooling and be aware of the sensitivity of digital content. In other words, teachers should know the rules of copyrights. (Redecker 2017, 20) In INTEF, this part is mainly about browsing, filtering, and evaluating the gained data and managing them (INTEF 2017, 15-17).

The third cluster is called Teaching and Learning and deals with the use of DT in learning and teaching processes. This area contains activities such as teaching, guidance, collaborative learning, and self-regulated learning. Together, they refer to the DT in all phases of the teaching process, from design to implementing it into lessons. Moreover, this part of competence proposes the shift from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach, therefore, the teacher should use the DT to provide the learners with space for autonomous learning and guidance complemented by creating new ways of learning underlined with DT. (Redecker 2017, 20-21)

Other cluster deals with Assessment. Here, the ways of using DT to enhance the assessment strategies are taken into consideration together with analyzing evidence and feedback and

planning. Digital competence claims that the DT may be used for both summative and formative assessment. The teacher should also use the DT for generating, selecting, analyzing, and interpreting learners' digital performance and progress and provide them with feedback at the same time. (Redecker 2017, 21)

Area number five – Empowering Learners – again proposes that the schooling processes should be centered around the learners rather than around teachers and that way make the learners engaged in lessons. Moreover, this part of the framework considers learners with special needs. According to this framework, teachers should be able to use DT for inclusion, and differentiation which may be defined as identifying and observing pupils' individual needs and experience in order to meet the requirements in a way that no pupil is excluded from the teaching and learning process. (Sandberg, Kallberg, and Hellblom-Thibblin 173, 2022) This way, the active participation of learners may be enhanced. In other words, the DT can help the teacher differentiate activities to meet individual needs and make them actively participate in lessons by implementing activities that engage their creative thinking and transversal skills. (Redecker 2017, 22)

Finally, the last cluster is called Facilitating Learners' Digital Competence, and it deals with the learners' abilities to use DT. (Redecker 2018, 16) This area seems to be in accordance with the key competence of RVP ZV as described in previous paragraphs. Meaning, the learners use the technology responsibly, for communication, widening their knowledge, creating content, etc. (MŠMT 2021, 13)

As is visible from the above paragraphs, Redecker's (2017) framework is not the only one that exists. The second one from INTEF (2017) mostly agrees with the first one, however, there are five clusters instead of six. Those clusters are Information and data literacy, Communication and collaboration, Digital content, Safety, and Problem-solving. As was already mentioned, both frameworks mostly view digital competence from a similar point of view. They also divide the proficiency of a digitally competent person into six levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2). The main differences are naming the categories and structuring the activities slightly differently, moreover, the INTEF framework seems to deal with the DC from a more general point of view. The learning and teaching processes are observed rather scarcely. (INTEF 2017; Redecker 2017)

2. English language teaching and learning

In the previous chapter, the terms teacher and teachers' competences were described in a rather general way. In order to be able to observe the digital competence of an English language teacher, the context of English language teaching and learning must be included as well. Therefore, in this chapter, the generally described teacher is put into the context of language teaching and learning. Moreover, based on information from the previous chapter, it may be said that currently, digital competence is an important part of the profession of a teacher, however, it might have not been so in the past. Therefore, the historical context, following the development of methods and roles of the teacher from the past until the present is observed. The changes are observed in connection with aims, teaching methods, and the roles of teachers. Moreover, English teaching and learning are observed from the point of view of strategic context, meaning premises for the future. Finally, to see the current situation of ELT, a curricular context is set as well. In other words, English language teaching is described from the point of view of curricular documents.

Firstly, it is important to define what English language teaching means. Based on the words of Scrivener (2005, 17) teaching in general is giving the learners suitable conditions for their learning because a teacher cannot learn for their learners. The least they can do is to provide them with conditions that enhance their ability to code the input they are exposed to and make links to help them remember and thus learn. This may be done by involving the learners, giving them enough space to work and process the input, etc. (Scrivener 2005,17) Richards and Rodgers (2001) call these activities teaching approaches and methods and they claim that they are "sets of core teaching and learning principles" and that they are specific for every taught subject.

If this information is put into the ELT context, Richards and Rodgers (2001) state that what is important for the general view of teaching and learning may be applied to language learning as well. However, these methods and approaches should be used to fulfill the aim of the ELT which according to CEFR (2001) is to provide the learners with an opportunity to become fully competent to use English to meet their communicative needs. In other words, the aim of ELT is to ensure that the learners have optimal conditions so that they can develop their ability to deal with problems of everyday life in a foreign country, "to exchange information and ideas with young people and adults who speak a different language and to communicate their thoughts and feelings to them" and to understand the ways of other people's lives and their thinking

along with recognizing their cultural heritage. (CEFR 2001, 3) This may be summarized as a communicative competence which is to be described in greater detail later in this chapter.

2.1. English teacher

Firstly, before putting language learning and digital competence into a further context, an English teacher and their competences must be described. Even though the qualities of the teacher were dealt with in the previous chapters, the point of view was rather general. To be able to speak about ELT and DC of an English teacher, the perspective needs narrowing. Now that the ELT was briefly described and the aims of language teaching and learning were mentioned, the term English teacher may be defined as well because it is important to think about what role the teacher plays in the more specific context of the ELT process and what qualities are crucial for an English teacher.

Firstly, the qualities of an English teacher should be mentioned. It is obvious that the basic qualities of an English teacher are the same as the ones mentioned in the first chapter (Chapter 1.1.), meaning they should be patient, honest, fair, should be able to control the classroom, should know the subject, and how to teach it, etc. However, every taught subject acquires a set of qualities and activities of the teacher that are specific to it. More importantly, as Larsen-Freeman, and Anderson (2011, 3) claim, there is "shared pedagogical knowledge among language teachers that is different from that of teachers of other subjects."

To be more specific, based on the research conducted by Lu, Jiang, and Guo (2022, 2-3) the most important qualities that an English teacher should have, are language ability together with the knowledge of the cultural aspects of the language. They should be able to push the students to think about the language from different angles so that they would be able to find a way to understand the laws of the language. Another quality that should, according to this article, be a part of an English teacher profession is a positive attitude towards the language and the culture. The teacher should be able to forward their attitudes, preferably the positive ones, to the learners. All these qualities must be also complemented by the knowledge of the content of the course and the knowledge of the teaching methods. (Lu, Jiang, and Guo 2022, 2-3)

Moreover, English language teachers, as well as their history and experience with language learning hold great importance. The ways and methods of learning and teaching that teachers experience during their language studies are very likely to affect their ways of teaching and the methods they choose for teaching the language. (Larsen Freeman, and Anderson 2011, 3)

In other words, being a language teacher requires all the qualities that are important for working in an educational environment in general, however, in addition to these, it requires knowledge of the language and the cultural aspects together with having a positive attitude towards the language and the culture. Also, many qualities that one develops by experiencing something, in this case, language learning, have an important impact on the character of a teacher.

2.2. Competences in ELT

Some of these qualities mentioned in the previous paragraph may be called competences. However, these competences may be viewed differently. For instance, one way to view the competences of an English teacher is to look at them as Lu, Jiang, and Guo (2022). They stated that the teacher should know the laws of the language to be able to teach them. According to their research, this competence is mostly understood by teachers as the ability to use and teach the language skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. (Lu, Jiang, and Guo 2022, 2) Scrivener (2005, 27) agrees with this opinion by dividing the "subject matter of ELT" into language systems and skills.

While the language systems are divided into phonological, lexical, grammatical, functional, and discoursal and they deal with one feature of the language, for example, a word, from different points of view, the skills deal with more complex relations in using the language to communicate. The skills are divided into receptive, when the learner absorbs the language and tries to understand the message, and productive when the learner produces the language. A competent teacher has developed these skills and is able to share their knowledge with the students. (Scrivener 2005, 28–29)

Another point in Lu, Jiang, and Guo's (2022) research is that the teacher should know the cultural aspects of the language. According to Kramsch (2014, 298) cultural awareness, in terms of language use, is as important as the linguistic features of the language and they must be taught in the same way that the systems and skills are. Therefore, the teacher needs to be competent in this way too.

Finally, the second way of viewing these competences is through the CEFR (2001), where the individual competences are put together and form the communicative competence whose acquiring, as was already said, is the aim of English language teaching and learning. To make sure that all the aspects of a language are taken into consideration communicative competence is further divided into linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pragmatic competence.

If linguistic competence is observed, it may be said that Scrivener's (2005) and Lu, Jiang, and Guo's (2022) language systems and skills are a part of this competence. To state a clear definition, CEFR (2001, 13) defines linguistic competence as a set of linguistic aspects of language such as phonology, lexicology, semantics, grammar, syntax, etc. However, all these disciplines are observed only in their linguistic form, ignoring the social and pragmatic aspects of language. In other words, linguistically competent speakers know the forms of words, the spelling, the word order in sentences, etc. but they are unaware of the cultural requirements they should know to be able to use the language properly in various situations. (CEFR 2001, 13)

On the other hand, sociolinguistic competence takes the linguistic features of the language and puts them into the context of a social interaction. The sociolinguistic competence deals with socio-cultural conditions of the language, with the rules of politeness and impoliteness. The interactions between different sexes and between people with different statuses are observed. In other words, a person who developed sociolinguistic competence knows which expressions are suitable for different cultural and social situations. For example, speaking to a superior requires polite language maybe even formal speech. On the other hand, speaking to a friend does not need to be formal, and more familiar linguistic expressions may be used. (CEFR 2001, 13)

Finally, the third part of communicative competence deals with language in a wider context. According to CEFR (2001, 13), pragmatic competence observes the functional use of language (functions of language, speech acts). Furthermore, it deals with "discourse, cohesion, coherence, the identification of text types and forms, irony, and parody." For all this to be used correctly, it is important to consider the types of interactions and cultural conditions in which the utterance occurs. This means that when a pragmatic competence is developed, a person is able to identify and produce a piece of language with the awareness of the impact that it may have in a given context and use it in accordance with the situation he or she is in. (CEFR 2001, 13)

To conclude, while linguistic competence may be seen as the language ability in Lu, Jiang, and Guo's research (2022) or the systems and skills from Scrivener (2005) where strictly the linguistic side of a language is taken into consideration, the two competences (sociolinguistic and pragmatic) may be seen as the cultural awareness from the Lu, Jiang, and Guo's (2022) point of view. Nevertheless, both points of view are equally important for this thesis and its empirical part. Moreover, they both aim at the same target of ELT - being able to communicate correctly, effectively, and appropriately to the situations the speaker is in. To be able to use

appropriate vocabulary, follow the rules of grammar and syntax together with the rules of discourse. To recognize the purposes of interactions and be able to react properly.

2.3. English language teaching and learning in context

Now that English teaching was generally described it is time to look at it in more detail. It is obvious that the ELT was not always the same and there were changes in aims, roles of the teachers, and methods throughout history. Because changing methods and aims means also different requirements for the abilities of a teacher, the historical context of ELT is mentioned in this subchapter. Moreover, the views on using technologies in ELnglish lessons are observed here. However, even though the overall changes are important, it is also necessary to know how English language teaching and learning and digital competence are viewed now. For this purpose, the curricular documents are observed, and the goals of ELT and the perception of DC are described. Finally, in terms of the future of language learning and teaching, it is obvious that more changes may come and some kind of strategy should be created. Therefore, the strategies and possible further changes in both ELT and DC are dealt with by observing strategic documents.

2.3.1. Methods and digital technology throughout time

For the last hundred years or so, there has been a constant hunt for more effective ways of teaching foreign languages. Seeking for the perfect one, the changes in learners' needs had to be taken into consideration. For example, throughout time, the stress on reading comprehension and writing ability was moved towards oral proficiency and listening comprehension because the need to translate text was replaced with the need to communicate. The same may be said for the importance of detailed knowledge of language rules. From the rules being presented to the learner to be memorized, ELT moved towards learners' abilities to think about the language and create the rules themselves based on authentic examples of the language. (Richards and Rodgers 2001) As a result of this search, various methods in Europe as well as in the US were carried out by various authors. For the purpose of this thesis, two main sources were chosen. Those two sources are Richards and Rodgers (2001), and Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011).

As was already mentioned in the previous paragraph, the reasons for the changes may vary based on what is to be achieved by learning the language. Firstly, in the past, it was important to learn a language to be able to read and memorize religious and later even non-religious texts. In that case, being able to communicate orally was not considered important. It is supposed that

being able to read and translate certain texts gave birth to the method called the Grammar-Translation method which has supposedly its roots in German scholarship. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 5) This method from the beginning of the nineteenth century was supposed to help the learners grow intellectually as well as to help them understand the grammatical laws of their native language. However, the Grammar-Translation method did not expect the target language to be actively used by the learners. (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 32)

In this method, the teacher's role could be described as a source of grammatical rules and a provider of materials for translation (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 6) In other words, the teacher served as a medium between the language rules and the students.

Even though this method was useful for the development of reading skills, on the way towards the end of the nineteenth century, the glory of the Grammar-Translation method started to decay. The reason for that might be the fact that it was not designed to meet the needs of communication. Since the opportunities for communication among Europeans increased, the method that did not expect the learners to use the language for communication seemed rather insufficient. Specialists started to observe the discipline of linguistics and started to put stress on phonetic features of a language – The Reform Movement. They argued that spoken language is primary and that the learners should hear the language before seeing its written form. Moreover, it was decided that the grammatical rules should be taught inductively – with the use of context – and the act of translation should be avoided. Now, it is obvious that with these demands, the Grammar-Translation method had to be replaced. Therefore, another method was brought into the world of foreign language learning – the Direct method. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 7–11)

Given the fact that any kind of translation is forbidden, the Direct method may be seen as the exact opposite of the previous method. According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, this method got its name because "meaning is to be conveyed directly in the target language through the use of demonstration and visual aids, with no recourse to the student's native language." (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 46) Therefore, new vocabulary should be taught in the target language, orally and with the stress on pronunciation. Listening comprehension was also important. Vocabulary and new points were taught by demonstration and association. (Richard and Rodgers 2001, 12) Based on that, it may be said that the Direct method aimed at being able to use the language not only for reading texts and self-education but also for oral communication with other people.

Without translation, various aids had to be used when teaching with the Direct method. It could be anything that could help with the demonstration of new features of language. They could be pictures or objects representing the words in the target language. Even though the role of the teacher remained more or less the same, the requirements changed. Given the fact that there was no translation allowed, the person had to be a native speaker or speak the language on a native-like level to become a language teacher. Another disadvantage of the Direct method was the lack of theoretical background. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 13)

After the Direct method started to be questioned, the true hunt for the perfect method began. Therefore, the term method as such had to be defined and a theoretical structure emerged. This structure puts the method into the main positions and further divides it into three parts. Firstly, the approach deals with the theoretical aspects of individual methods (theory of language learning, and theory of language). Secondly, the design, where more practical aspects such as objectives and roles of the participants are taken into consideration. Finally, the procedure observes how may a lesson taught with this method look like. With this structure, new methods could follow. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 18–33)

The first method which should be named is the Oral approach. As its name implies, this method followed the footsteps of the Direct method in the way that the oral procedures were used in lessons and the stress was put on the ability to communicate. However, unlike the Direct method, the Oral approach, developed by British linguists, had systematic support in applied linguistics and behaviorism. Given the fact that the new features of the language should be practiced situationally, the Oral approach was later called Situational language teaching. The aim of this method may be seen as mastering all four language skills with the use of oral exercises. The accuracy of pronunciation and grammar were crucial. (Richard and Rodgers 2001, 36–47)

As it is with methods based on the theory of behaviorism, even this method was based on the repetition of certain language features. In other words, the main tool for teaching and learning was drilling. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 40–41) To lead the drills to their full effect the teacher had to be the model in situations in which the language is to be used, the teacher gave questions and commands so that the learners could repeat them. Furthermore, the teacher should monitor the class and look for possible grammatical errors. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 43–44)

One more important piece of information should be mentioned. From the 1940s to 1950s, computers started to be used in education. They were used in methods based on behavioristic theories, where the drilling was important. (Hanson-Smith 2003) Warschauer agrees and adds that during the phase of behavioristic theories, the teacher used the computer mainly as a medium between the students and the knowledge they were supposed to acquire (Warschauer 2012). In other words, for presenting the learners with model situations.

As SLT was developed by British linguists, approximately during the same period, the US linguists developed their own method called the Audiolingual method. The Audiolingual method is also a part of behavioristic approaches. Like the Oral method, it has a strong theoretical basis in linguistics – structural linguistics. However, unlike the Oral method, in the Audiolingual method, a little attention is put on teaching the language systematically. In the Audiolingual method, the importance of drilling is recognized as a tool that may help the learners overcome the habits of their native language. (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 59; Richards and Rodgers 2001, 50)

If the roles of teachers are compared, in both methods, the role of the teacher is active and controlling. The teacher sets the content, and the pace of learning and also is in charge of choosing situations for drilling. They are both highly teacher-centered methods. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 62)

As was already mentioned, during the big boom of new methods from the 1960s to 1970s, there were not only mainstream methods. Besides those, there were methods, which were based on different fields of study, for example, neurology. Alternative methods were considered underdeveloped without links to language and learning theories from the mainstream. Therefore, these methods did not find their way into the second language acquisition textbooks and were used only by individual teachers who chose to use them. Nevertheless, even though they did not reach their popularity in second language acquisition, some of the future methods draw inspiration from these alternative approaches. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 71–72)

At the end of the twentieth century, a major shift occurred in the methods. Even though all the methods mentioned above aimed at being able to communicate, it seemed that the learners were not able to use the language in a social context. This was caused by the fact that all the methods aimed at mastering only the linguistic part of the language. With the new methods, this approach changed, and the major attention was put on mastering communication as a whole rather than only linguistic features. (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 152; Richards and Rodgers

2001, 151) This approach is called the Communicative Approach, and it may be divided into two parts – weak and strong. The weak version saw the importance of providing the learners with opportunities to communicate in the target language. On the other hand, the strong one showed that the target language may be learned through communication. (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 172)

With the change of approach towards language learning, the possibilities of using digital technology in lessons changed as well. According to Warschauer (2012), from the role of a medium and a virtual tutor, digital technology became a stimulus for pupils to think about problems, lead a discussion, and for the development of language skills. Therefore, even the teachers in their lessons may have more opportunities to use DT in their lessons, but, still in a very limited manner.

The first method of the Communicative Approach was Communicative language teaching. This method arose from questioning the British SLT together with the increasing need to teach European people the main European languages. If CLT is compared to the other methods which were mentioned above, the differences are obvious. Firstly, while in the previous methods, the ability to communicate was supposed to be learned by memorizing or drilling certain grammatical structures which helped to avoid mistakes at all costs, in CLT the language was learned through struggling to communicate, therefore, through making mistakes. Also, the attention was moved toward observing the meanings of those structures, and towards their formal or informal use rather than only automatizing the patterns. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 153–174) The only disadvantage may be seen in the fact that CLT "lacks closely prescribed classroom techniques" and therefore it may be "'fuzzy' in teachers' understanding." (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 152) However, at the same time, it gives the teacher freedom to use various techniques to reach the goal and teach the learners to communicate.

Based on the roles of the teacher and the fact that DT was no longer just a medium between the language and the learner, it might be said that some features of the modern concept of digital competence may be seen even in this era and specifically in this method. According to Richards and Rodgers, the roles of the teacher in this method are a facilitator and an independent participant. Moreover, the teacher is in charge of the resources used in the lessons. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 167) If this is connected to the DT and its parts mentioned in Chapter 1.3. it is obvious that even in the past, the teachers had to look for suitable digital materials.

However, to be able to follow the development of DT, to know how to use DT, and to choose the right materials and texts, the teachers must be taught the basics. Therefore, during the 1980s and 1990s, they started to be taught how to use it. However, given the fact that the DT was still in its beginning, the effect on learning the language remained rather neglected. (Hanson-Smith 2003)

To get back to the methods, this one may be seen as an extension of CLT because it follows its principles. However, it is viewed a bit differently. Cooperative language learning works with the thought of interaction and cooperation between the learners. It uses various cooperative activities. CLL is based on psychological theories that social interaction plays a central role in language learning. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 192–201)

If this method is viewed from the digital point of view, even there the teachers could use the DT for some kind of social interaction. It could be used in two ways. Either the DT could be used only as a stimulus and the conversation took place between the learners, or the conversation could take place between the learner and the computer itself. However, in the second case, the problem would be in the limited number of phrases and expressions since the programmers were not as skillful as they are today. (Hanson-Smith 2003)

Also belonging to the Communicative Approach, the Natural approach should be mentioned as well. The Natural approach recognizes the need to be naturally exposed to the language. Krashen being one of the founders, the whole approach is based on his theory of language acquisition. This may be a subject of criticism and a reason for Richards and Rodgers (2001, 15) to connect this approach with the group of alternative methods. In the Natural approach, the roles of the teacher are a source of input, a creator of a friendly and comfortable atmosphere for learning, and a source of a variety of enjoyable activities based on learners' needs. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 187–188)

In the next method, the content gets into the spotlight. Based on Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, 172–174), Content-based instruction (US) or Content and language-integrated learning (Europe) are methods that may be put into the strong version of the Communicative Approach. By using these methods, teachers interlace language learning with another subject. In other words, CLIL and CBI may be defined as learning a language with the use of cross-curricular relations. Moreover, it may be said that CBI and CLIL are extensions to language learning rather than a complete language program. (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 172–174) This may be because language learning is considered "incidental to the learning content." Therefore,

the aim is to "activate and develop existing English language skills" with the use of specific content. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 211)

The role of teacher became more passive in the classroom and more active before the lesson took place. The teacher is responsible for giving clear context and making sure, their instructions are comprehensible. However, in the lesson, the main role of the teacher is an analyst for the learners on their way of learning a language. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 2014)

Finally, the last method mentioned in this chapter is called Task-based language teaching. According to Larsen-Freeman (2011, 193) and Anderson in this method, learning takes place when the learners need to use the language to solve a task that stands before them. (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011, 193) Same as CBI and CLIL, it is hard to say that TBLT could be the whole language program, and in literature, there are mostly only individual task-based activities. Nevertheless, they give a great space for individual approach towards the learners because the task may be chosen based on learners' individual needs. (Richards and Rodgers 2001, 230)

The main role of the teacher in this method is to structure the tasks, prepare the learners for the tasks to be done, and finally, to keep learners' attention on the tasks. This may be done with the use of a variety of interesting materials and tasks. (Richards, and Rodgers 2001, 236) Most certainly, these task may be found in digital world.

According to Hanson-Smith, it is even desirable to use DT while using the last three methods. In content-based learning the DT is useful, because one may download and store information and search for new content. In task-based learning, the potential is in the variety of online games and tasks, enhancing creativity and individual work, that may be found on the Internet. (Hanson-Smith 2003)

From what was mentioned above, it is obvious that thanks to the changes in methods and roles of the teacher as well as the development of DT, some kind of digital competence was needed even in the past. However, as was already mentioned, even though the DT was used, the teachers did not have any specific guidelines on how to use it in their lessons. Based on the fact that technology still goes forward and there are new technologies every day, some documents describing the use of technology in education had to be created (see Chapter 1.3.). An example of such document may be the *TPACK* (2006) which has its basis in Schulman's theory mentioned in Chapter 1.1. *TPACK* combines these three separate parts of the knowledge of a

teacher and adds technological knowledge to it. To conclude, Mishra and Koehler describe Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge as:

> The basis of good teaching with technology, it requires an understanding of the representation of concepts using technologies; pedagogical techniques that use technologies in constructive ways to teach content; knowledge of what makes concepts difficult or easy to learn, and how technology can help redress some of the problems that students face. (Mishra, and Koehler 2006, 1029)

2.3.2. ELT in curricular documents

Now that the history of methods used for language teaching and learning has been described, it is time to see, how it is viewed by curricular documents. In the following paragraphs, two curricular documents are observed. The first is *RVP ZV* (MŠMT 2021), where the general objectives of language teaching and learning are described together with the specification of DT and how it should be implemented into education. The second document to be observed is *CEFR* (2001, 2021) which specializes strictly in language teaching and learning. Based on the fact that the current point of view on DC was already described in Chapter 1.3. it is left out here. Moreover, given the fact that the methods are combined in modern language teaching, the documents do not mention methods that should or should not be used in language courses.

Nonetheless, similar to the past, even today the ability to communicate is seen as the most important thing in language studies. This should also mean that the roles of DT stay the same as those mentioned in previous paragraphs. Apart from the importance of communication, *RVP ZV* also mentions the importance of language being the medium of cultural and historical aspects of people of the target language. Moreover, it is a means for getting and giving information. Learning a foreign language may lead to an increase in self-confidence. (MŠMT 2021, 16–17)

Again, like methods in history, even today's curricular documents observe language skills as an important part of language learning. In *RVP ZV* (MŠMT 2021, 27) each skill is further specified with expected outcomes and abilities that the learners should have after finishing a course. For example, in the lower-secondary school, the learners should be able to understand spoken information and content in ideal conditions of the speaker speaking slowly and clearly. If the speaking is concerned, on the same level, the learner should be able to ask for basic information with awareness of the formal aspects of the question. Moreover, the learners should be able to speak about topics that are closer to them. Thirdly, concerning reading comprehension, the learners should be able to read short authentic texts and find information in

them. Finally, in writing, the learners should be able to write a short text concerning themselves and reply to a short text addressed to them. Together with practicing these skills, attention is also brought to other aspects of language such as pronunciation, vocabulary connected to certain topics, and grammar. (MŠMT 2021, 27)

According to MŠMT, the expected outcomes differ with the language level of the learners. Based on the curricular document, after finishing the lower-secondary school, the learners should be on the level called A2 which is defined in CEFR as a basic user level whose expected outcomes are mentioned in the previous paragraph. (MŠMT 2021, 17; CEFR 2020, 36)

Let's give the CEFR levels a closer look. In the document, it can be found that the levels go from A1 to C2. Meaning, A1 is the lowest level and C2 is the highest level a learner can reach. As was already said, each of these levels also has its specifications and expected outcomes. (CEFR 2021, 37) For the purpose of this thesis which deals with ELT at primary and lower-secondary levels of schooling, only the first two levels are described in detail.

Even though the A1 is considered the lowest of the levels, it does not mean that every beginner automatically starts there. It may be said that this level is the first base of language learning, and every learner must first go through the pre-phase. To get to this base, the learners must first complete certain tasks and obtain certain abilities. Those abilities are described as being able to communicate something with the support of non-verbal gestures, name days, time, and dates, use basic greetings, apologies, etc. (CEFR 2001, 31) Finally if the learner can do all mentioned above, plus they can understand the everyday language and can describe themselves and people they know, together with being able to interact in a simple manner, it can be said that they are on the A1 level. (CEFR 2001, 24)

After the A1 level, there is the A2 level which is the target level of compulsory schooling in the Czech Republic. This level is still considered a Basic user level. Nevertheless, the communicative abilities of the learners are improved and the topics for the conversation widen. (CEFR 2001, 24) This level was already specified with the use of RVP ZV, however, CEFR views it from a more detailed point of view. While *RVP ZV* generally describes the abilities the learner is supposed to master, CEFR adds that the abilities concern a context of areas that are most related to the learners. They are "personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment" together with routines and one's background, environment, and needs. (MŠMT 2021, 27; CEFR 2001, 24)

With further studies, the learners may reach levels B1, B2, C1, and C2 where each may have a plus level (B1+, B2+, etc.). The levels B1 and B2 are called Independent user levels. With each level, the communicative abilities improve and the number of topics increases. The B levels are associated with a visitor coming to a foreign country. There are two basic features. Firstly, the ability to maintain interaction is very important. Secondly, being in a different country, the interaction may take place in different contexts and the learner should be able to communicate in those various contexts. (CEFR 2001, 34–35)

Finally, the C levels are connected to mastering the use of language. Those levels imply that the learner can fluently and spontaneously communicate with the use of a wide range of language features. Learners who reach the C levels may be called Proficiency users and are examples of successful language studies. (CEFR 2001, 36)

To summarize this chapter, in curricular documents, the ELT is seen as a course with the aim of the ability to communicate. Moreover, the documents give specifications on partial aims of language learning that are connected to levels of language proficiency.

Finally, it must be said that even though digital competence was not mentioned here for the reasons mentioned above, DT may be used at any language level, however, it is important to have the instructions from the documents mentioned in Chapter 2.3.1. and 1.3. in mind.

2.3.3. ELT in the eyes of strategic document Strategie 2030+

Now that the history and the presence of language learning and digital competence in it are known, it is time to look at strategic plans. Given the fact that nowadays, the possibilities to travel do not have boundaries and therefore the weight put on language learning is getting heavier, it must be said that communicative competence is more stressed by the documents than ever. The same may be said about new digital technologies. Given the increasing number of novelties in this field, the same stress is put also on digital competence. Therefore, some adjustments in both must be made in upcoming years.

These adjustments are described by a strategic document called *Strategie 2030+* (MŠMT 2020). This document is rather general, however, the concepts that can be found in it are applicable to language learning as well. Based on expected changes, the document proposes adjustments in methods, forms, and the content of schooling. Concerning DC as well.

Given the fact that education in the Czech Republic is ruled by curricular documents, the first way of realizing these adjustments is a revision of these documents. Based on what are the

needs of learners, the curricular documents were observed, and essential changes were made. The revised documents observe the content and objectives of individual subjects and based on contemporary trends and learners' needs connected to them, they chose the essential content which corresponds with these needs. This should lead to a decrease in the amount of the taught content. Moreover, it should supposedly give the teachers more time to choose and use various methods which will more effectively lead to fulfilling revised expected outcomes of schooling. (MŠMT 2020, 27) This concerns also the use of digital technologies. Even though in language learning, this change does not project as much as it does for example in informatics, the teachers of the English language should still revise the teaching methods which were mentioned in Chapter 2.3.1. so that the development of communicative competence is ensured.

To see if the chosen methods are the correct ones the outcomes should be tested. The expected outcomes were always checked in the third, fifth, and ninth grade. Based on the new curricular document, another checkpoint was added in the seventh grade. This is important also for ELT, where all four checkpoints are compulsory. With this change, more space for early diagnosis of children with special needs is to be provided and therefore, there is an opportunity to choose methods that allow individualization and differentiation. (MŠMT 2020, 28) Which may be, as was mentioned in Chapter 1.3., supported by the use of digital technologies.

That brings up another point of this strategic document, which is the importance of digitalization of the education. As was mentioned in the introduction and proved in Chapter 2.3.1, technological development same as the development of the ELT cannot be ignored and even in education, it must be acknowledged. Therefore, this strategic document takes technologies into consideration and proposes the addition and further specification of digital competence into the curricular documents (see Chapter 1.3.). According to MŠMT (2020, 32–33), digital technologies should not be included only in informatics but also in other subjects for example language learning. By this, the teachers are provided with various innovations in methods, forms of teaching, and also in evaluation which enables them to differentiate their teaching. This may be beneficial not only for the teachers but also for the learners. They may use DT for self-evaluation or for their further studies of the language. (MŠMT 2020, 32–33)

To conclude, language teaching and learning went through great changes which lead also to changes in methods and approaches, and together with the development of technology, it finally led to changes in the requirements of the teachers. From essential pedagogical, content, and pedagogical content knowledge, they had to develop one more. They had to learn how to include the technologies in their lessons and still follow the rules of individual methods.

Moreover, the development is ongoing, and more changes may come. Certainly, they would take both language teaching and learning and the digital competence of teachers into consideration.

3. The English language digital classroom

Finally, after defining all the key concepts, it is time to put everything together and look at how the DT, which is generally defined in the first chapter, could be used in English lessons. Given the fact that the contemporary aim of language learning is to develop communicative competence, the ways of using DT for this development are observed. However, if language learning is viewed from the point of history, another important feature must be observed. They are called language skills, and the goal of their development was recognized even in early language teaching methods. Therefore, the use of digital technologies is observed for both communicative competence and language skills.

As already mentioned, to be a teacher, a person must obtain certain qualities and types of knowledge. However, as already mentioned, there is one special type of knowledge that is important for the use of DT in English lessons. Koehler et al. (2014, 102) call it technological knowledge. This was already mentioned in Chapter 2.3.1 and may be further defined as "teacher knowledge about traditional and new technologies that can be integrated into the curriculum". If this knowledge is combined with the pedagogical and content knowledge the technological pedagogical and content knowledge (TPACK) ensures that the teachers consider the complex relationship between this knowledge and enables them to choose methods and strategies of using DT specifically connected to the content. (Koehler et al. 2014, 102) *TPACK* may be also seen as a part of digital competence which was already defined in Chapter 1.3.

In that chapter, the parts of digital competence are named as well, but without any specifications for the classroom. Therefore, now it is time to look at them again and add some practical tips on how the parts may look in and out of the classroom.

The first part is about communication between teachers and parents and teachers and their pupils outside the lesson. Here, The Digital Teacher (2023) suggests that the teacher may create a Facebook group for the learners as a place for communication, sharing documents, setting homework, etc. That way the learners have all the important information in one place where they can come whenever they need to and thanks to the notifications, they should not miss

anything. Moreover, the website also recommends sharing information and materials in Google Docs or through applications from Microsoft company. (The Digital Teacher 2023)

The second part of the DC also takes place outside of the lesson. This activity of the teacher is about selecting the resources. Here, it is recommended to test all the online resources and activities before using them in the lessons. The materials may be created by anyone, therefore, there might be factual grammatical or spelling, etc. mistakes. That is why it is important to check if they work properly. Therefore, the teacher should test them or give them to a colleague to test them. That way, they may prevent themselves from using material that contains mistakes, does not work properly, or could be confusing for the learners. (The Digital Teacher 2023) Moreover, after finding useful materials, it is also important to store them somewhere, so the teacher has always materials to choose from.

Finally, after communicating with the learners and choosing and storing suitable materials, it is time to move into the lesson itself. There, before the lesson starts, the teacher should turn on all the technologies that would be needed to see if they work and to save time spent with waiting for them to start working in the lesson. Next, it is suitable to use digital technologies as warm-up tools. In other words, DT such as Kahoot or Socrative can bring the competitive spirit of the learners, motivate them and lighten up heavier lessons. However, if the DT is to serve its purpose, it is also important to give the learners clear instructions concerning using the DT. In other words, to tell them "WHAT to do to get started, training them HOW to use each tool, and making sure they understand WHY it's valuable." (The Digital Teacher 2023)

If assessment and evaluation of the learning is concerned, the teacher may use various applications to collect data from the learning process and share them with the learners. According to The Digital Teacher (2023), the teacher can make use of blended learning which is a combination of face-to-face and online learning that combines the advantages of both (Dangwal and Lalima 129, 2017). That way, the teacher may give the learners homework to record their pronunciation or create short videos to assess their speaking. Furthermore, in the lesson, the teacher may give a test in Google Forms on learners' devices and have immediate information about how the learners did in the test. Also, given the fact that the test may be stored on the computer, the teacher might work with them in upcoming lessons and eliminate some of the mistakes made. Additionally, by giving the learners online surveys with the use of Google or SurveyMonkey that may be used either in the lesson or outside the lesson, the activity of the teacher or the materials used may also be evaluated. (The Digital Teacher 2023)

Getting to the Empowering of the learners. Here, Sandberg, Kallberg, and Hellblom-Thibblin (172 – 183, 2022) mention that given the fact that the devices are portable, the learners may work wherever it is comfortable for them which may help with the differentiation of the lessons where the learners may work for example in a hall, where there are no other people. Moreover, given the fact that most of the time spent in a lesson, the learners sit and listen, using DT may aim also at the visual senses by using projectors and interactive boards, which may show pictures to the whole class in a second or with the use of tablets or phones, each child may work with a different visual aid. Based on that, they may create their own content such as PowerPoint presentations, etc. However, the teacher should remember that, as with everything, too much of anything is not good. Therefore, it is important to know the learners and know how much DT they can handle and based on that, plan the lessons and prepare nontechnical options. (Sandberg, Kallberg and Hellblom-Thibblin 172 – 183, 2022)

Finally, if Facilitating is concerned, as was mentioned in the first chapter, this part of DT concerns showing the learners how to use DT responsibly with knowledge of all the dangers, but also with the consideration of all the advantages that it may bring. This part also claims that learners should be able to create their own content with the use of DT. An example of showing the learners the risks of using DT while creating their content is showing them presentations where copyrights are respected. If the teacher ignores the copyrights, the learners will not follow them either and could get into legal problems later. (The Digital Teacher 2023) Moreover, it is important to speak about safety. According to The Digital Teacher, this may be done as a speaking activity with the additional value of new vocabulary and development of the skill to give advice (The Digital Teacher 2023).

3.1. Digital technologies for communicative competence

Now, given the fact that the current aim of ELT is the development of CC. Some DTs suitable for reaching this aim should be mentioned. Considering the digital technologies that may be used for the development of communicative competence, Bui (2022, 4) divides the integration of DT into English lessons into skill-based, rule-based, and function-based practices. For skill-based practice, he mentions programs from the Microsoft Company, such as PowerPoint or Word. These programs are widely known and used not only in education. They may for example help the teachers to stress linguistic features or show new content. Specifically, Microsoft Word or even PowerPoint may be used to highlight pronunciation features, word stress, etc. On the other hand, in PowerPoint, teachers can show visual aids for learning new vocabulary. The rule-based practice aims at teaching grammar. Here, Microsoft tools may be used again to present

or highlighting new grammatical structures. Finally, function-based practice may be seen as aiming for sociolinguistic competence and trying to put learning into a context. This may be done by using YouTube videos as a presentation of certain features of the chosen context and as a foundation for further discussion of the problems connected to the context. (Bui 2022, 4) Moreover, given the fact that YouTube contains authentic videos with real-life voices and examples of language use (Bucur and Popa 2017, 259) it also enables learners to learn different dialects and words specific to certain contexts.

Another tool that may be used in English lessons for the development of communicative competence is the Internet itself. According to Bucur and Popa (2017, 260), the internet in the mobile phone or a computer can be used in English lessons instead of paper dictionaries. In other words, the learners may search for new vocabulary or even for possible meanings and contexts of use or even pronunciation. Moreover, on the internet, visual aids for learning new vocabulary may be found and projected to the learners (Bui 2022, 5). As an example, the Google or Seznam Translator together with Bab.la or the Cambridge or Urban dictionary may be mentioned.

The next online tools that should be mentioned are those where teachers may find and create digital resources for developing CC. These are, for example, QR codes on which the teacher uploads various exercises (grammar, vocabulary, etc.), and learners with their phones may scan the codes and complete these exercises. (Neumajer 2016) Next, there is DUMY.cz. Again, on this website, teachers may find various exercises created by other teachers that deal with various linguistic aspects. (Konference Počítač ve Škole 2022)

Other examples of applications and websites that may be used to develop communicative competence may be classified as generally known. They are Wordwall, Kahoot, Live Worksheets, Learning Apps, Quizlet, Quizzes, Plickers, Baamboozle, and many others. It may be said that most of these applications and online tools are publicly known and widely used by multiple teachers in multiple schools.

3.2. Digital technologies for language skills

If the use of applications and online tools for developing language skills is taken into consideration, it must be said that many of the tools mentioned above are useful for developing communicative competence as well as language skills. For example, Bui (2022, 5) again mentions PowerPoint. According to him, PowerPoint is suitable not only for developing CC

but also for developing reading skills by presenting texts or the questions to be answered. In other words, it may be said that PowerPoint is a rather multifunctional tool.

Another useful website for language skills development is YouTube. According to The Cambridge English Digital Framework (2023), YouTube may be used for listening exercises. The learner may play the video and complete comprehension exercises. Moreover, there are podcasts that the learner may listen to and enjoy them. According to Artyushina, Baguzina, Plekhova, and Sheypak (2015,44), these podcasts are not only good for listening exercises, but they may also help with the development of speaking skills if the learner decides to record them or discuss the topics with classmates. Speaking about podcasts and videos, the well-known TedTalk application, which may be useful for practicing listening and as a foundation for speaking activities, should be mentioned as well.

If the attention is moved toward writing, an example of an application that may be used in English lessons is Book Creator. In this application, learners may create their online books and subsequently share them with classmates, with the teacher, or even publish them. (Holec 2022) Another website mentioned by The Cambridge English Digital Framework (2023) is Write&Improve which contains various exercises aimed at practicing writing. The next one is Penzo, which provides the learners with a private space where they may write their thoughts or stories. Finally, some more platforms for practicing and developing writing are Blogger and WordPress.

There are also some generally known platforms that may be found on the Internet. They contain activities that may aim at various language skills, and it is up to teachers to choose which one is suitable for their lesson and learners' needs. One of these platforms is the British Council, where there are fully prepared activities aimed at reading, writing, and listening. Usually, these activities also contain a short speaking part. Other websites are Test-English, iSL Collective, Cambridge English, and others.

To summarize this chapter, it is obvious that there are many platforms, applications, and websites which may be used in English lessons. There are tools such as PowerPoint or YouTube that are multifunctional and may be used for developing CC as well as language skills. Other websites focus only on specific parts of CC or specific language skills. However, in the end, it is up to the teacher to choose which application or platform is suitable for the needs of the learners.

EMPIRICAL PART

4. Research methodology

To set a context for the research, this research takes place in a public basic school in Trutnov district. This school educates approximately eight hundred pupils from the first to ninth grade. The school consists of two buildings next to each other, three gymnasiums: a big one which is connected to the main building, a smaller one which is inside the second building and the largest one which is in the city center; two outside sports grounds near the property and a school canteen within a walking distance from both buildings. The main building also contains an elevator. Therefore, the school is suitable also for disabled children. The pupils may get their education in thirty-four essentially equipped classrooms (black or whiteboard, computer for the teacher, speakers, data projector, etc.) and thirteen classrooms specially equipped for the purposes of biology, geography, chemistry, foreign languages, and practical workshops. Concerning the further equipment of the school, in every classroom for pupils from the first grade to the fifth grade, there are only blackboards with projectors, and in a few of them, there are also interactive boards. From the sixth grade to ninth grade there are only whiteboards and projectors, no blackboards, and again, in a few of them there are interactive boards. Apart from that, there are also two classrooms specially equipped for the IT lessons. In those classrooms, there are computers, data projectors, headphones, etc. In classrooms equipped for foreign languages, there are interactive whiteboards, one computer for the teacher, and headphones for the learners so the listening exercises can be contained in the teaching process. Also, the constitution of the classroom slightly differs. The classrooms are smaller, and the chairs and desks are placed in the shape of a circle. Based on that information, it can be said that this school is sufficiently equipped so that the use of digital technology could be observed.

Now that the information about the school is set, it is time to focus on the empirical part of this thesis. As was already stated in the introduction, the aim of the empirical part is to find out, firstly, what is the subjective attitude of designated teachers towards using digital technology in English lessons. Secondly, if they use it in their lessons. Finally, if they do use them, how do they use them. In other words, after finding out their attitude towards DT and finding if they use digital technologies in their lessons, it is important to observe, if they use them in accordance with the information about digital competence, which may be found in the first chapter (1.3.).

If the methodology of this part of the thesis is concerned, it is possible to say that this kind of research is mixed research. Because there are used methods from both qualitative and quantitative research (Hendl 2005, 60). As Svododová (2020) says the combination of those two types of research depends on what the aim of the research is. When there are both qualitative and quantitative data needed, there are several ways in which the parts of research may be combined. The first one according to Svobodová is the pre-research model, which starts with qualitative methods for pre-research and subsequently the quantitative research follows (or vice versa). The second model is called the generalizing model where the qualitative data are further verified on a wider sample which enables them to be generalized. The third model is the deepening model in this model, the quantitative research brought data, which are further analyzed by qualitative methods. Finally, the last model is called the triangulation model, here, both types are combined to gain data from various sources. (Svobodová 2020) It may be said that this research makes use of the triangulation model. It takes the qualitative data and observes them with the use of a different tool and type of research to reveal all the aspects needed for the research.

To be able to choose the correct methods, the individual types of research must be described. Qualitative research is according to Svobodová (2020) type of research where the focus is not on numbers but on describing, observing, and finding information, moreover, putting that information in the wider context of people's situations. It explains and describes phenomena in the world. (Svobodová 2020) Hendl (2005) also claims that with the realization of qualitative research, it is necessary to collect the data from authentic situations that take place in a natural environment for the observed people. Moreover, the quality of the data conducted during qualitative research is not dependent on the amount of gathered data but on the experience of meeting people in a specific context. In that way, the described phenomenon can be observed in greater detail. (Hendl 2005, 51-52) Also, the researcher's attitudes towards the researched problem are subjective with the aim of getting close to the problem (Gavora 2000,31). Therefore, the teachers' attitudes toward digital technologies in English lessons are observed with the use of qualitative research.

The second type of research is quantitative. This research Svobodová (2020) describes as the one which deals with numbers and statistics. Quantitative research enables the researcher to verify theories and gain relatively accurate data that may be generalized within the observed population sample. (Svobodová 2020) For this type of research, the researcher must remain objective and keep their distance from the researched problem, not to project their attitudes into

it (Gavora 2000, 31). In the case of this thesis, the sample that is observed are three teachers in the context of an English language lesson that takes place in one basic school, therefore, in this case, the findings are not generalizable because the sample is not big enough. However, the aim is to see if the teachers use their digital competence, therefore it is assumed that the number of occurrences of ICT in lessons must be noted.

Now that the types have been described, the process of conducting research must be mentioned. In conducting research some stages should be followed. Hendl (2005, 41) lists the preparation phase, where the field of research is decided and the problem to be researched is observed. Based on that, the main research question should be asked and subsequently, the aim should be derived from this phase. (Hendl 2005, 41) In this case, there are three research questions. As was already mentioned, they are connected with the digital competence of English language teachers. The questions are:

- What are the teachers' subjective attitudes and opinions on using ICT in English language lessons?
- Do English teachers in primary and lower-secondary schools use digital technologies in their lessons?
- Do they use it in accordance with the digital competence specifications?

Therefore, the aim of the research is to find out what are the teachers' attitudes towards the use of DT in their lessons and if they use it in accordance with the basic rules of digital competence, in other words, if they are digitally competent.

The second phase of research is the planning of the research. According to Hendl (2005, 41), this phase is the most important, because here, the decisions about the strategies and methods are made, also time management must be taken into consideration. Moreover, in this phase, the researcher decides who is going to be the subject and when, and where the collection of data will take place. (Hendl 2005, 41) Svobodová (2020) agrees and states that in the planning phase, the researcher chooses research strategy, design, sample, and tools for the collection and interpretation of the data. (Svobodová, 2020)

Concerning the methods that were chosen for this research, there are two of them. The first one is a group interview. Svobodová (2020) calls them "Focus groups" and she states that this type of interview may be better than the one with an individual because during the interview the psychological obstructions supposedly fall off and therefore it is easier for the interviewed to talk freely (Svobodová 2020). In contrast to Svobodová (2020), Denscombe (2010, 176-177)

defines the focus groups more specifically concerning the number of participants and time management – six to nine participants, up to two hours. This research cooperates only with three people, and it is not as time-consuming as Denscombe describes. This type of interview seems to be more likely the one that Denscombe calls a group interview. (Denscombe 2010, 176-177) Its purpose is to learn about participants' attitudes and emotional points of view. Because of the reasons mentioned above, the term group interview is used in this thesis. By using this method, the data about the teachers' personal views of DT may be gathered.

Subsequently, after the interview, the second method takes place. The second method which was chosen were observations. The observation is according to Svobodová (2020) suitable complementation for the interview, because it may give a wider picture of the researched problem (Svobodová 2020). Moreover, with interviews, the researcher cannot be certain about the truthfulness of what the participants say. On the other hand, with observations, the researcher "directly records what people do" therefore, the participants cannot lie. (Denscombe 2010, 204) To be able to observe efficiently, there are certain rules. According to Svobodová (2020), while observing, the researcher should remain as unobtrusive as possible so that the reality would remain unchanged. Moreover, she claims that the observations need preparation in the form of a table (observation arch). (Svobodová 2020) The first method is a part of qualitative research while the other method, in the way it is used in this research, may be more suitable for quantitative research, because of the reasons mentioned in previous paragraphs. However, given that the description and the aim of an activity is noted down, this tool gives both qualitative and quantitative data.

Finally, the sample and time management of the research were decided. The method which was used to choose the participants of the research is called intentional selection. Gavora (2000, 64) describes this type of selection as one where the sample is chosen based on features that are relevant to the research together with the researchers' experience, pedagogical knowledge, and their own judgment. In this case, the sample consists of three English teachers within one school and their English language lessons. For the focus group interview, they were chosen based on researcher's previous experience. Moreover, they were chosen because of their years of practice all of them have taught English for more than twenty years, therefore, they experienced teaching their lessons without DT or with DT much less advanced than it is today. Moreover, if they used it, they did not have any guidelines for it. Based on that, I was curious what are their attitudes towards DT and how they manage to implement it into their lessons. Those three teachers are also the subjects of observation.

Concerning time management, the number of observed lessons was chosen to be six consecutive English lessons. Therefore, the minimal time needed only for observations was at least two weeks. However, given the fact that the teachers had to be interviewed in one week and the two weeks of observations might be interrupted by holidays or teachers' absence, the final amount of time needed for the data to be collected had to be larger. Therefore, the research was given two months.

The third and fourth stages of research are the data collection, analysis, and conclusion of the findings of the research. While collecting data, it is important to follow the research plan, however, be open to changes, if the collection and subsequent analysis give the research a new view angle. (Hendl 2005, 41)

If the analysis of the collected data is concerned, for this research, the method of coding was chosen for the analysis of group interviews. Denscombe (2010, 115) divides the whole process of coding into two parts. The first part is called open coding. It is described as a process of the raw data being analyzed and put into labeled chunks based on the content. After the open coding, the axial coding takes place. According to Denscombe axial coding happens when the researcher starts to look for the relationships between the codes. It is possible to identify that some codes are more important than others and that some may be put into broader terms. (Denscombe 2010, 115) In this case, the codes were divided into groups based on the parts of digital competence defined in Chapter 1.3.1. After that, more detailed codes were created with the aim of answering the research questions.

If the observations are concerned, as Denscombe says, the advantage of observations is that they are already put into codes and are ready to be analyzed (Denscombe 2010, 204). In this research, the data from observations are used for underlying what was said during the interview. In other words, they are used as a complementation for the data collected with interviews. Because the teachers' personal opinions about their DC may be very different from how digitally competent, they are.

By using more methods of research, a process called triangulation takes place. During this process, data gathered with the use of multiple methods are compared (Průcha, Walterová, and Mareš 2003, 253). In this case the data from the interview and the observations. Thanks to this comparison, the validity of the research is getting higher. It may be said that this type of validity is called "concurrent validity and it observes how much the data gathered in a certain way

corresponds with data gathered with the use of different methods"[5] (Průcha, Walterová, and Mareš 2003, 269). Moreover, to make sure the research is also reliable, meaning to make sure it does not contain mistakes and the results are accurate and reliable (Průcha, Walterová, Mareš 2003, 200) both the interview and the observations were firstly piloted, and some changes were made.

5. Interview

As was already mentioned in previous paragraphs, the interview is a research method of qualitative research. In this section, the interview used in this research is described in more detail. The questions of what type of interview is used, what type of questions were used, how was the interview structured, and why it was structured in a certain manner are answered.

Generally, in an interview, there is usually one interviewer and one interviewee. However, for the purposes of this research, the group interview, defined by Denscombe (2010) in the previous chapter, was chosen. In other words, the list of participants contained one interviewer and three interviewed people, specifically teachers. This type of interview was chosen deliberately, because, as Svobodová (2020) claims, more sources may bring more information, and even the participants may be pushed to think about their opinions and attitudes further than if they were interviewed separately, the environment of the interview may be more natural, and the participants may feel as they have more freedom in expressing their opinions and attitudes.

However, no feelings would be expressed if there were no questions. Questions are the most important part of the interview. If the types of questions are taken into consideration, based on expected answers, Denscombe (2010, 165) divides them into open and closed questions. He claims that the open questions give the respondent the opportunity "to decide the wording of the answer, the length of the answer and the kind of matters to be raised in the answer." Using the open questions, the interviewer gives the interviewee more space to express their mind in their own manner, without being affected, moreover, it enables the researcher to gain more raw information which may be very beneficial for the research. (Denscombe 2010, 165) On the other hand, by using closed questions the respondents are put in front of a certain category from which they can choose their answer. These types of questions leave the researcher with data that may be easily analyzed. (Denscombe 2010, 165) According to Švaříček et al. (2007, 170)

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[5] Translated by the author

in the interview, it is desirable to use preferably open questions and not to use theories that could affect the researched reality (Švaříček et al. 2007,170).

Another way to view the questions used in an interview is to look at them in connection with the aims that should be reached by asking them. Švaříček et al. (2007, 163 – 170) divide them into introduction questions, which should prepare the interviewee for the interview. "These questions should be easy, and they might show an empathy with the respondents."[6] After the introduction questions, the main questions should be asked. This type of question is the core part of the interview. These questions aim at addressing the main problems of the research. While asking these questions, the researcher should stay unbiased and give the respondents enough space to answer them without being influenced. The third type of question is a follow-up question. The aim of these questions is to make sure that the answers are understood correctly, moreover, they may provide the researcher with even more data. The fourth type is indirect questions. With these, the researcher allows the respondent to answer the questions from a different point of view. Therefore, the aim is again to widen the range of gathered data. Type number five is called dynamic questions. By using dynamic questions, the researcher keeps the interview going and stimulates the respondents to keep answering the questions and participate actively. Finally, the last type of questions is called finishing questions. These questions close the interview and end the whole interaction. (Švaříček et al. 2007, 170)

As is visible from the previous paragraph, the structure of the questions is important for the interview to serve its purpose. However, not only the questions should be structured, but the structure of the whole interview should also be taken into consideration. Concerning the structure, Denscombe (2010, 175 – 176) lists three types of interviews. The first one is structured. In this interview, the researcher has a prepared list of questions for which the respondents have a limited number of answers (closed questions, similar to questionnaires). In this case, the researcher has control over the whole process of interviewing. The second way of structuring an interview is called semi-structured. The interviewer still has control over the process and there is still a list of questions prepared, however, the difference between those two types is that with a semi-structured interview, the interviewer is willing to be more flexible and provide the respondents with more freedom to develop their opinions more widely. Finally, the last type of interview is the most loose one. With an unstructured interview, the interviewer

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[6] Translated by the author

presents the interviewees with a topic, subsequently tries not to interfere and leaves the respondents to follow their own thoughts and ideas. (Denscombe 2010, 176 – 176)

Now that the method of interview has been further explained, it is important to be even more specific. Firstly, as already mentioned in this chapter, the interview chosen for this research is a group interview. It was chosen because I wanted the respondents to feel safe and possibly share their opinions with me, as well as with each other.

To create this safe space, the type of questions had to be chosen wisely as well. Therefore, a combination of open and closed questions was used. Since the interview contained several topics based on clusters of DC (Chapter 1.3.), the choice of questions depended on what purpose they were supposed to serve as well as in which part of the interview they appeared. For example, when opening the interview or one of the topics, the introduction questions were supposed to take place, and since from previous paragraphs it is known that the introduction questions require simple answers, the closed questions were used. On the other hand, when the base of the topics was addressed, open questions were used so that the range of information about the main problems was as wide as possible. (See Appendix A.)

Speaking about the introduction and main questions. Apart from the indirect questions, all the types of questions were used in this interview. The introduction questions were asked after the general introduction where the respondents were welcomed and asked for permission to record the whole interview. Furthermore, in the introduction, basic information about time management and the topic of the interview was mentioned. After that, the introduction questions were asked. Moreover, they were also used when a new topic was presented. They were followed by main questions which aimed at gathering data on the main problems of each topic. The main questions were often followed by follow-up questions that provided me with more details on the main problems or gave me a further explanation of something that was not clear to me. On the other hand, when something did not seem to be clear to the respondents or when they fell silent, the dynamic questions were used to keep the flow of the conversation and to lead the respondents to a more suitable path of their thoughts. Finally, at the end of the interview, the finishing questions were used. By using these questions, the interview was concluded from the researcher's point of view and the respondents had a chance to look back at their answers, evaluate themselves, and simply conclude their thoughts. After the final questions, the conclusion was reached. In the conclusion, the respondents were again assured of their anonymity and were reminded of the purposes of their answers together with the

information about when and where they will be able to find the written form of the interview with its results.

As is visible, the interview has its structure. Concerning the structure of the interview, it is possible to say that the interview was semi-structured, sometimes even unstructured. The questions and possible ways of how the interview could go were taken into consideration and prepared ahead, however, when interviewing, some questions were left out and the freedom to dive into one's thoughts was provided for the respondents. Other questions were asked differently, and the rules that were created while preparing the interview were bent during the interview itself. After all, even Denscombe (2010, 176) agrees that usually every researcher may slide on the scale of those types and what was semi-structured may become unstructured and vice versa.

Finally, to conclude these paragraphs, the whole preparation and structuring of the interview is described. Firstly, as already mentioned it was a group interview. The interview consisted of multiple topics. This happened because the main topic of this thesis is digital competence, which can be divided into several parts. Therefore, each part of this interview deals with a different part of DC (Chapter 1.3.). That is also why the introduction questions were asked not only at the beginning of the interview but also in its central parts. After considering this, the most suitable questions had to be chosen. As I needed to provide the respondents with enough space in some questions and then give them a limit in other questions, the open and closed questions were used. The interview is semi-structured because during the interview I was open to slight changes and the questions were not strictly asked in the form they were prepared.

5.1. Piloting

Before the realization of the interview itself, an act of piloting had to be done to find out how long it may take to interview the group. Moreover, by piloting, the researcher made sure that the questions were understandable and not ambiguous in any way. Finally, the piloting also tested if the topics were appropriately listed so that the flow of the interview would not be interrupted by any necessary clearances of the links between them.

For the purposes of this research, two acts of piloting were conducted. The first try was conducted on a group of three English teachers from an elementary school in eastern Bohemia took thirty-five minutes and showed that the questions in the interview were in an order that was rather hard to understand for the teachers. Moreover, they were rather broad and mostly closed questions with the answer yes or no. Therefore, there were multiple occasions when the

teachers had to ask for further explanation or even for an example of what they were supposed to answer if they were supposed to develop their thoughts or just simply answer yes or no. Not only was this interrupting the flow of the interview but asking them closed questions did not gain enough data and therefore the interview would not serve its purpose. To prevent these problems from happening, the questions were changed so that the intention of the questions was obvious and the interviewees had enough space to develop their thoughts. At the end of this piloting, the teachers were asked if they thought that the interview was suitable for the aim of discovering their attitudes and feelings towards the DT in English lessons. The answers to this question showed that the interview aimed at the abilities more than the attitudes, therefore, the questions had to be changed as well so that the aim of the research would be reached.

An example of changes after the first piloting:

→ Digital resources (before piloting)

1. Do you use digital materials in your lessons?
2. How do you know that the material is suitable and useful for you lesson?
3. Do you seek new ways of using digital technologies in your lessons?

→ Digital resources (after piloting, see Appendix A)

1. Where do you search for digital materials for your English language lessons?
2. Could you state some examples of these resources?
3. What, in your opinion, does a digital material have to have so that you could consider it good quality for English language teaching and learning as well as suitable and beneficial for the learners?
4. Do you think it is important to search for new ways to include digital technologies into English language lessons? How do you do it?[7]

During the second piloting, the new script of questions was tested. This time, three English teachers were interviewed as well, but they were different three teachers from a different school. This interview took forty-two minutes and the changes that had to be made were not as remarkable as those from the first try. In this try, only the finishing questions were added because the teachers felt that the interview was not closed and they were expecting more

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[7] Translated by the author

questions to come. Apart from that the only changes made were equaling the number of questions in each topic and making sure there were closed and open questions in each topic. After this piloting, the interview seemed to be consistent and understandable. Moreover, it also corresponded with the aim of finding out about the opinions and attitudes towards the DT in English lessons.

To conclude, with these two piloting acts, the questions in the interview were changed so that they were clear and understandable and so that they gave the respondents the space and time to think about them. Subsequently, they were also changed in order to answer the research question, which was: What are the subjective attitudes towards the use of ICT in English language lessons? Next, it showed that the interview may take about thirty-five to forty-five minutes, which is also important to know and share with the interviewees before the start of the interview itself.

5.2. Data collection

After piloting the material for the interview and making the necessary changes, the interview could take place. Based on the time management mentioned in previous paragraphs, the interview took place a week before the observations. It took place in one of the classrooms of the chosen school. That way, the teachers were in a space that they knew and therefore, in a safe space for them.

At the beginning of the interview, the teachers seemed nervous, and they hesitated with their responses. After the introductory questions, the answers started to seem easier for them and they even consulted their answers with each other.

However, as the interview continued, it was visible that one teacher felt more comfortable talking to me. This teacher answered all the questions in multiple sentences and frequent monologues. On the contrary, the rest of the participants were not that talkative. Teacher number two mostly only nodded and had short comments to support the statements of teacher number one. She provided the interview with only a few complete answers that were based on her thoughts. The teacher number three was the one who spoke the least. In certain moments, she did not even comment on the answers of her colleagues, and she expressed her thoughts only three times.

Apart from that the interview did not meet any obstacles and provided the researcher with all the data which were needed. In other words, the attitudes toward digital technology were clearly expressed together with opinions on digital technologies with which they have worked during

their career. Moreover, they provided the researcher with tips for digital technologies whose use was later observed in lessons.

5.3. Analyzing the interview

As was already mentioned, the gathered data was analyzed with the use of open coding. Firstly, the transcript of the interview was divided into the parts of digital competence and observed. The important parts were highlighted in the transcript and given codes (see Appendices B, C). Subsequently, the highlighted parts were further observed and the attitudes towards the digital technologies were carried out.

If the introduction of the interview is concerned, it showed that all three teachers with more than 23 years of practice are on the expert level of professional scale mentioned in Chapter 1.1. (Průcha 2017, 191). Moreover, all three of them agreed that the most important qualities of an English teacher are flexibility, and the ability to communicate with parents and pupils. The teachers should be just and have knowledge of the taught language. Moreover, they mention that the teachers must know how to teach the language. In other words, they should have content and pedagogical content knowledge. This underlines the list of qualities of the teacher mentioned in Chapter 1.1. and Chapter 2.1. Finally, asking the participants about digital competence, they defined it as using digital technologies in lessons with the aim of teaching the learners how to use them. In addition, they also mentioned teaching the learners about safety while using DT.

Moving to the areas of interest in digital competence defined by Redecker (2017) the first area to be analyzed is using DT for communication. Based on the answer "All the time!"[8] which was exclaimed in unison by all the teachers it is possible to say that communicating with the use of DT is nothing extraordinary for the participants and their attitudes towards it are unequivocally positive. Moreover, they also mentioned some of the technologies they use. The most frequent tools used for communication, according to the participants, are Microsoft Teams, e-mail, and Bakaláři. Concerning the ability to adjust to the number of new technologies and digital tools, which is also a part of this area, the participants agreed that it is important to choose what is suitable for an individual and stick to what is known to the teacher as well as the pupil.

> […] One has to choose from those because there are too many new technologies and with everything being online…With the online lessons... people found the technologies that were close to them and suited their needs… once in a while they would add something new but apart from that, they stayed with the applications that

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[8] Translated by the author

they knew… and the children as well, they get used to it and they want to use it as well… so it goes like this, you teach with what you know, sometimes use a new tool and that is it.[9]

The second area that was observed concerns the digital resources. In this part, the teachers expressed their concern with the quality of the materials they find on the internet, in webinars, or in specific applications such as Wordwall, Quizzes, Kahoot, Quizlet, ISL, British Council, Live worksheets, etc. According to them, even though they are very useful, the materials frequently contain mistakes and therefore it is necessary to proofread them before using them in lessons. However, before correcting possible mistakes, the participants claimed they chose the materials based on the topic of the lesson, the language level of the pupils, and based on the playfulness of the material. Based on the answers from the previous paragraph, the participants of this interview are rather loyal to applications and tools they already know, and they do not search for new sources of materials. From what was mentioned, it is possible to say that the attitudes towards materials from the internet are mixed. They find them useful but there are frequent mistakes that need correcting, and the correction is time-consuming.

Another part of the DC put the technologies into the lessons. Answering questions from this part, the opinions of the participants differed. One of the teachers dedicates one lesson out of three in a week to teaching lessons with the use of computers and iPads. Teacher number one claimed that she occasionally uses pupils' phones and sometimes plays Kahoot with them. The third teacher uses the technologies the least. Nevertheless, all of them agreed that when they use DT in their English lessons, it is mostly for the purpose of practicing linguistic competence.

> U3: […] Well, all of them could be taught with DT… but if you look at…normal English lessons… maybe in English conversation, that would be something different, right? …there are more opportunities … but classical English lessons… I think we can agree on the linguistic one. [10]

If the language skills are concerned, the teachers agreed that the DT is mostly used for the listening exercises.

> U1: […] listening goes right from the computer and the speakers are needed. While … speaking is a pair activity, they write on paper, and for reading … they usually … mostly read from textbooks. So, for me, it is mostly listening.
> **U3:** I can only agree that listening is the most frequent…[11]

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[9] Translated by the author
[10] Translated by the author
[11] Translated by the author

Another thing the participants agreed on, is that when they use DT, they see the difference in pupils' activity. They feel that when they use DT, the pupils seem to be motivated to cooperate in lessons and that it is more interesting for them.

If the assessment with the use of DT is concerned, all teachers agreed that it saves them time and that it is also better for the learners. The teachers may use it as a basis for working with a mistake and as a tool for giving grades. The teachers also claimed that in their opinion, the DT may be used for both formative assessment which is defined as an assessment concerning the progress of one's learning and helps with deciding about strategies for future learning, and summative assessment which is defined as a final assessment concerning the performance of the learner. (Malach 2002, 177) "U1: […] if they understand the topic or not … that it is … good for working with mistakes or that … like, when they make a mistake and for the more complex topics … and why is it there? And why is it correct and why is it not?"[12] In other words, it may be said that the teachers have positive attitudes towards using DT for assessment because it is easier for them as well as the learners. It saves time, because the summative assessment may be realized by the application itself, and for the formative assessment, the teachers may give clear criteria which are given by DT or store the data about learner's progress in one place and both the teachers and learners can get back to them any time.

> U2: […] results, scales, and everything is saved, and you can go back to it … we have … we have an online notebook. I mean ... they have links there and they have their own compartments there and there are quizzes and all always in one place … And we can make graphs … basically, they can see their … like, their progress and the assessment...[13]

The next area deals with empowering the learners. Here, each teacher uses different ways of individualization or differentiation. U1 claimed that she uses phones as a support for learners with special needs. U2 uses different exercises on iPads based on the level of the learner. U3 makes use of presentations and coloring and highlighting in them. Also, as was already mentioned, according to the participants, by using the DT in lessons, the learners may be more willing to cooperate and actively participate in lessons. As U1 said „Yeah, they like that … Are we going to play Kahoot today? The tablets work great … they will work with tablets, of course … but when they should write in the notebook … no way! But the tablets … "[14]

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[12] Translated by the author
[13] Translated by the author
[14] Translated by the author

Finally, in the last part of the DC, the teachers acknowledged some negative effects that the DT may have on education. They mentioned the unwillingness to cooperate in lessons without the DT. The next problem that was mentioned was an addiction to DT.

> U3: [...] me personally, I have a boy with netolism … completely addicted. And he really lives for the game. He is motivated by playing for dollars …
> **[…]** Emhmm... that is literally like … crazy … so with him, I would not dare. I would have to stand next to him … all the time … and look if he is doing what he is supposed to … because … I just cannot … and would not trust that he gives his attention to English. So, with this one, it is absolutely impossible to use any kind of DT.[15]

Another problem is that the learners are unable to focus on what they learn and in a moment of teacher's inattention they use their phone and ignore everything else. Finally, the last problem which was mentioned was laziness. According to the participant, the pupils became too lazy to write in their notebooks and they demanded the materials be printed out or projected on the whiteboard. Which according to the teachers is not effective enough because they mostly use only vision and no other senses.

> U3: […] they are absolutely unable to focus … and … with them being on their phones all the time, they are just addicted … the first thing they do after the end of the lesson … reach into the bag and take their phone. Plus, they are, just like U1 said … some of them are even too lazy to write on the paper! So, it is just … addiction, inability to focus and pay attention, and laziness… and when they do not use their hands for writing … or I think that they just cannot … like get the information into their heads when they just see it.[16]

Nevertheless, all teachers agreed that given the fact that technology is ever-present, it is important to support the learners in using the technologies for their individual education even outside the school environment. They do so with the use of voluntary homework or individual studying before tests.

Finally, to summarize the interview, the participants were asked about their overall attitude towards DT in education. All three concluded that even though they use it frequently and find it useful and supporting for both them and their learners, they are aware of some challenges in using DT in their lessons. Next, they were asked if, based on the questions they answered, they think, they are digitally competent. U3 confessed that she does not use the DT as much as she could and that there are holes in her DC. U1 claimed that she thinks she is digitally competent, but she does not look for new ways of implementing DT into her lesson and uses only those

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[15] Translated by the author
[16] Translated by the author

technologies she knows. With that U2 agreed but added that when something catches her eye, she is willing to try it in her lesson.

6. Observations

Now, concerning the second method of collecting data for the research, the observations are described in more detail. Firstly, it must be said that they took place in the same school which was described above. Also, the observed lessons were in lessons of the same teachers who participated in the interview. On the other hand, the areas in observations slightly differed from those observed in the interview. The reason for this is that some areas of digital competence cannot be observed in such a short period of time such as six lessons. Therefore, only some of them were observed in the observations as well as in the interview.

Regarding the time management of the observations, as already mentioned, the observations took place a week after the interview. The observations were realized in three grades (4. A, 6. AB, 9. D). The grades were chosen based on the expected level of the language together with the schedules of the teachers. The fourth grade is at the beginning of language learning, the sixth grade is in the middle of compulsory schooling, and the ninth grade is at the end. By choosing these grades, it was possible to see potential differences in using DT in different stages of learning, as well as using DT to teach multiple aspects of the English language (vocabulary, grammar, etc.).

Looking at the structure of the observation sheets (see Appendix D), they were designed for gathering data from one activity. In other words, if the activity in an English lesson is defined as "something that learners do that involves them using or working with language to achieve some specific outcome" (Scrivener 2005, 41) when the activity of learners or the objective changed, a new observation sheet was used. Moreover, for this research, the change of material aids that were used for the purpose of the activity was taken as a change of the whole activity as well. Therefore, it may be said that the observation sheet was changed if the aids, the aim, or the activity of the learners changed.

Furthermore, each activity was observed with the use of seven questions. The first question served as a rather general question so that the researcher was able to recognize what was happening and for what activity the DT was used. This question was related to the description of the activity and its purpose.

However, there was a possibility that the teachers would not use DT in their activities, therefore, the next two questions dealt with the possible occurrence of DT. The first question was a yes/no

question, and it monitored if DT was or was not used in the particular activity. If DT was used, the third (open) question observed which applications or gadgets were used in the activity. By this question, the area of Digital resources from the DC was also partly covered.

Subsequently, if the DT was used, its purpose was observed. These questions were chosen from the DC areas. However, as was already said, not all areas may be observed in an English lesson. For example, the Professional engagement concerns mainly communication through DT which cannot be observed in a lesson, same as the learners' use of DT at home. Therefore, the sheets observed only three areas.

The first question was chosen from the Empowering area, and it observed the use of DT for individualization which is a part of differentiation of the learning process. While differentiating, the individual needs of the learners are taken into consideration and the content and the methods adjust to be able to respect those needs (Průcha, Walterová, and Mareš 2003, 82). As was already mentioned, the digitally competent English teacher should be able to use DT for differentiation, therefore, if chosen teachers use DT that way, was observed. To answer this question, the researcher made a point when a DT was used for differentiation. That way, also the number of occurrences could be observed.

The next question was taken from the Assessment area and dealt with the use of DT for assessment, which was defined in the previous chapter. Same as in the previous question, here the number of occurrences of feedback provided by DT was observed as well. The was to be made every time when the learner got feedback.

Finally, the last two questions were both from the Teaching and Learning part of DC and they dealt with the use of DT for the development of learners' CC and language skills. In these questions the researcher was again supposed to make a point when DT was used for the purpose of development of CC or any language skill. Therefore, even in these questions, the numbers of occurrences were important.

6.1. Piloting

Same as with the interview, the observation sheets had to be tested first as well. The observation sheets were again piloted twice. The first pilot test served to correct the mistakes in the phrasing of the questions. The second piloting served for verification of answerability of some questions that seemed to be unobservable. By piloting the observations, some ambiguous questions were spotted and paraphrased or even omitted if the information could not be observed in the lessons.

To be specific, during the first piloting the questions concerning the DT were changed. These questions dealt with if the DT was used, how many times it was used, and what types of DT were used. Given the fact that one observation sheet served for one activity, it was not necessary to ask how many times the DT was used in the activity, therefore, this question was omitted and only these two questions were asked: Was a DT used in this activity? and What technologies were used in this activity?[17]

The next change was made after the second piloting, and it was related to question number four. There, the formative and summative assessment was supposed to be observed. However, during the piloting, it became clear, that it is not possible to see if the teacher provides the learners with this kind of long-term assessment, therefore, the question was paraphrased so it would aim only at the immediate feedback of how the learners did in that activity. This feedback is generally provided by most of the DTs and in the observation sheet, it was observed how many times the teacher made use of it by for example working with the mistakes the learners made which is important because the mistakes may help to form language habits (Orlová, and Pavlíková 2013, 63).

6.2. Observing lessons

After making the necessary changes during the piloting process, the observation sheets were ready to be used in English lessons. At the beginning of the two weeks of observation, each teacher introduced me to the pupils as a visitor, who is not there to observe their activities, but their teacher's doing. That way, the children did not have to be nervous, and the lessons could be the same as usual. This was important because as Svobodová (2020) claims, in order to gain usable data, the reality must remain unchanged. In other words, the researchers should not change it with their behavior.

After this introduction, the observations took place. During the observations, the pupils did not communicate with the researcher in any way. They were strictly paying attention to what the teacher gave them, therefore, it may be said that the rule to remain as unobtrusive as possible was followed. Subsequently, the lessons were observed, and the data was noted in the observation sheets (see Appendix E and Appendix F).

If the number of activities in one lesson is concerned, the lessons contained two to five activities on average. However, there were some cases when there were even twelve activities. During these lessons, it was hard to recognize when one activity started, and another ended because

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[17] Translated by the author

each activity took around two minutes and sometimes the learners did not even have time to do the exercise, or the exercise was done only by a few of them, and the rest did not pay attention. In these lessons, only activities that had a clear objective and that required the activity of all learners were noted in the observation sheet.

Even though these lessons were more difficult to observe, the act of observation provided the researcher with enough data that could support the data gathered from the interview. The data from the observations are analyzed in the next chapter.

6.3. Analyzing the observations

In the observation, it became clear that each teacher uses different technologies for different purposes on different number of occasions. There were activities where the DT did not occur at all, and there were lessons where the DT could be seen in every activity. In other words, the use of DT in the lessons of the three participants varied greatly. To gain a better perspective for analyzing the data, three graphs were created, where the number of occurrences were noted down. Each graph lists the total number of activities, moreover, the number of activities with DT is listed there. Furthermore, the number of occurrences of each phenomenon from the observations (differentiation and inclusion, feedback, communicative competence, and language skills) is included in the graph. (see Appendices G, H, I)

Concerning the lessons of the first teacher, they were observed in the ninth grade. This teacher taught lessons where there were average of two to five activities in each lesson, and the DT was used at least once in a lesson. Moreover, the DT was used mainly to present information instructions and project exercises.

The hardware that was used the most was the projector and the mobile phone. Projector was used in every lesson, the mobile phone was used in four lessons and in all three, in was used only for one activity. The tablets were used once because some of the learners did not have the Internet on their phones, therefore they would not be able to work, so the teacher brought the tablets for those learners. Concerning the software, the most used program was Microsoft Word which was used in every lesson of this teacher. She used it for instructions and instead of writing on a blackboard, she wrote in the program and showed it to the learners. The second software which was used in three lessons out of six was Kahoot. This teacher made also use of the instant feedback provided by the application.

Speaking about feedback, the teacher also used MW to give her feedback to the learners. Moreover, in Kahoot, there are final results for the class as well as the individuals. This data

was presented to the learners and the teacher went through every question where a mistake occurred, worked with the mistakes, and led the learners to the realization why their answer was wrong.

The next area to be described is the individualization with the use of DT. In the case of this teacher, there was a foreign student who could not speak Czech, therefore, this learner worked on his phone where he could use the translator and translate words that he did not know or understand. Therefore, in lessons which required the knowledge of vocabulary, the DT was used for individualization. This act occurred in three lessons out of six, in one activity of each lesson.

If the CC is concerned, this teacher also used DT mostly for linguistic competence and in all cases, it was for practicing grammar. The total number of using DT to develop linguistic competence makes fourteen. It occurred at least twice in each lesson. In other words, it may be said that when the teacher taught new grammar, she used DT for it. However, during one lesson, the teacher used the Internet and a document to pinpoint differences between speaking with friends and speaking with older people. In other words, she dealt with formality, and therefore, she used the TedTalk website for the purpose of the development of sociolinguistic competence.

Moreover, by playing the document, she also used DT to practice their listening skills. The language skills were practiced six times during the observation period. The listening was the most practiced skill. However, this teacher managed to practice all the other skills as well. For speaking and writing, the DT was used only to show instructions and for projection of an example of how learners should do it. That happened twice, once for speaking and once for writing. For reading, the learners read a text from the British Council on their phones or tablets and subsequently answered questions on the devices. DT for exercising reading was used only in one activity in one lesson.

Moving to the second teacher, her lessons were observed in the context of sixth grade. This teacher included two to five activities in her lessons as well and used DT in every lesson. In these lessons, the first activity was always without DT and the following ones contained some kind of DT. Again, it was mostly used for the presentation of instructions and online textbooks.

From the observations, it may be assumed that DT which was used the most concerning hardware was the interactive board and projector. This was used in every lesson. Moreover, in one lesson, this teacher used tablets and divided the pupils into two groups, one working with tablets and one with a paper textbook, and subsequently they switched. If the software is

concerned, the most used websites were Wordwall and online textbook and workbook. Wordwall was used three times in total and the online textbook was used twelve times.

When these systems were used, the teacher also made use of the option of feedback given by DT. However, the feedback was mostly restricted to the results of the exercises and to checking the correction. From total number of nine occurrences, the teacher used only one occasion for working with the mistakes and using the feedback as a support for the pupils' learning. Therefore, it may be said that even though the feedback provided by DT was used, it was not used as effectively as it could be.

If individualization is concerned, this teacher used DT for this purpose only two times. One of them was to project a table with grammar rules on tablets for pupils with specific needs. The second time the teacher created different QR codes for those pupils. When they scanned the codes, the exercises were different types than those of the other codes. Apart from this, the DT was used in the same way for all the children in the classroom.

Another problem observed was the use of DT for the development of CC. It was again used only for linguistic competence. In all cases that the DT was used for the development of CC, it concerned exercises for practicing grammatical rules and their use in simple sentences. The DT served for practicing linguistic competence seventeen times in total. In each lesson, at least two grammatical exercises were done with the use of digital technology.

Finally, concerning the use of DT for the development of language skills, this teacher practiced language skills overall twice throughout the whole observation period. Both times, she practiced listening, and she used speakers and a computer together with a projector and an online textbook for the projection of instructions.

One more thing must be mentioned. During the lessons, it became clear that the DT may help with drawing the learners' attention to the topic of the lesson. The lesson in which the tablets were used may serve as an example. If the two groups were compared, the one with tablets did their exercises without speaking or any other activity that would not be required. On the contrary, the second group that worked with the textbook was much less interested in the exercises and much more interested in talking to the classmates and drawing on the desk, etc.

Finally, concerning the lessons of the third teacher, they took place in the fourth grade. The average number of activities was four to five. Even though, during each lesson DT was used, the frequency of activities with DT was much lower than in the lessons of the rest of the

participants. While the other teachers used DT in three to four activities out of five, this teacher used it only twice in average.

The most frequently used hardware was a projector together with an interactive board. Every time a DT was used, it included projector or interactive board. Again, the main purpose for using these gadgets was to show the learners the instructions and present them with exercises. The exercises were from various websites. They were Oxford Bookshelf (online textbook), British Council, Liveworksheets, Škola s nadheledm, Wordwall, and Dumy.

If the feedback is concerned, the websites mentioned above may all provide the learners with immediate information if they managed to complete the exercise correctly or not, however, the teacher did not work with this feedback at all and multiple times, the feedback was not even shown to the learners and the teacher moved away from the exercise. Therefore, even though the total number of feedback that was shown to the learners makes six occurrences, not once was the feedback used in an effective way.

If individualization is observed, DT was used in one lesson. However, the activity was individualized in two ways. Firstly, the learners were supposed to read and translate a text that was rather hard to read because of its black-and-whiteness and small letters. Therefore, the teacher projected a colorful text with much bigger letters for those who find it hard to read black-and-white text with small letters. Secondly, she also played an audio recording of the text.

Observing the CC, this teacher also used the DT only for the linguistic part of the communicative competence. Nevertheless, in her lessons, the DT was used not only to present grammatical rules. This teacher used it also for new vocabulary and its practice and for showing the learners some basic syntactical forms. The communicative competence was practiced thirteen times.

Finally, this teacher used DT to practice language skills as well. She used DT for listening and reading. During the listening activity, she used speakers and an interactive board, where the learners could answer the questions based on the audio record. For reading, she projected the text on the board and the learners read it from the board. Some learners had their textbooks as well, however, they read the text from the board and answered questions in their notebooks.

To summarize the observations, firstly, it showed that all teachers use the DT in their lessons. The number of occurrences of DT varies with each teacher. The first and the second teacher use

DT more often than the third one. If the equipment is concerned, most commonly, they used a projector and interactive board together with websites such as Wordwall, British Council, etc. Secondly, all teachers used DT to give the learners feedback, however, some of them used it only as a piece of information and did not work with it any further. In that case, based on what was said about DC this way of using DT for assessment does not seem to be correct. Thirdly, all teachers used DT for individualization at least once in the observation period. Finally, all teachers used DT for the development of both CC and language skills. Moreover, the most practiced competence was the linguistic one and the most practiced language skill was listening.

7. Findings and discussion

To summarize the research, with the use of group interview and observations of the teachers in their lessons, it was possible to answer the research questions stated in Chapter 4.

Firstly, the first question concerned the subjective attitudes towards the use of digital technology in education. The main tool on the way to answer this question was the group interview. Based on what was said in Chapter 5.3. it may be concluded that the opinions and attitudes were rather positive. The teachers see many advantages in all the fields of digital competence mentioned in Chapter 1.3. Mainly, they recognize that DT makes their teaching practice easier and that it saves them time. In other words, based on the information from the interview, they find communication with the use of DT faster and easier and they claim they use it on an everyday basis. What also increases their positive attitudes is the fact that the differentiation and individual approach towards their learners is also easier with the use of DT. They may simply let the children work at their own pace or even completely individually. They can use the DT as a support or even use it for different tasks etc. If the resources are concerned, they appreciate the amount of material which may make the lessons enjoyable, and thanks to that the learners seem to be actively participating in the learning process.

However, the amount is also seen as a disadvantage of DT in education. The teachers expressed that sometimes there are just too many materials and technologies and for them, that may cause slightly negative feelings. However, they also stated that when a person finds what works for them, it is no longer a problem. Another limitation recognized by the teachers was the overuse of DT and an addiction connected to it. Based on the experience the teachers have, they recognize a great danger in overusing DT and are not happy about the outcomes of such actions.

Secondly, the question that concerned if DT is used by the teachers was answered with the use of both group interview and observations. Specifically, in the interview, the thoughts of the

teachers were stated – they think they use DT regularly. However, the truthfulness of these thoughts had to be tested. Therefore, the observations took place. Based on the observations, it is possible to say that all of the participants used DT in their lessons at least in one activity per lesson. Also, the observations underlined the differences between individual participants. The first teacher claimed that she uses it regularly but not as often as teacher number two. Meaning both teachers use DT in their lessons rather frequently. However, the third teacher expressed that she is not as skilled as the other participant and that she uses DT rather occasionally. That became clear from the observations when U1 used DT in fourteen activities out of twenty-one, U2 used it in seventeen activities out of twenty-three and U3 used it in thirteen activities out of twenty-seven.

Finally, when it became clear that DT was used by the participant, their digital competence had to be observed as well. Therefore, the observable parts of DC were put into the observation sheets and subsequently observed in lessons.

The results of the observations together with the results of the interview showed that the teachers use DT following the rules set in Chapter 1.3. with few limitations. They use DT for communication with parents as well as students and to communicate with their colleagues.

In their lessons, they make use of various digital resources, which are picked based on the objectives of the lessons and the environment of the classroom. Also, when they find a digital source that is not exactly what they need, they are able to adjust the materials to their needs as well as the needs of their students. Moreover, by using DT in their lessons they provide the learners with opportunities for trying to find new learning strategies which would be suitable for them.

Connected to it, giving the learners new options, and opening new horizons for them may be also useful when differentiating the lessons. As was heard in the interview and underlined by the observations, the teachers use DT to make sure learners with special needs may work at their own pace, use an online dictionary on their phone, or have adjusted material projected on the board. In addition, when using DT, all learners were drawn into the lessons and actively participated in the learning process.

Subsequently, when the learning process is to be evaluated, the teachers stated that they use online tables where the data about the progress are stored and sheared with the learners. In lessons, the teachers make use of immediate feedback provided by DT. However, not all of the

observed teachers used it to further develop the ability to work with a mistake and see the progress nor they lead the learners to possible self-evaluation.

Finally, if the development of digital competences of the learners' are concerned, this was not possible to observe in the lessons, however, based on the statements from the interview (see Chapter 5.3), the teachers try to inform their learners about the online safety, they gave space for the learners to work with DT outside of school and they also enable them to create their online content (presentations, videos, etc.)

To summarize, it may be said that the three participants of this research have mainly positive attitudes towards digital technologies in education. They use digital technology in their lessons regularly and finally, with some exceptions, they use them correctly, following how digital competence is described in *DigCompEdu* (2017). Therefore, they are digitally competent.

Conclusion

To conclude, this diploma thesis deals with the digital technologies that may be used in English language lessons. Specifically, the stress is put on the digital competence of English teachers. In other words, this thesis tries to find out if the teachers use digital technologies in their lessons, how they use it, and if they use it correctly. In two parts it defines basic terms in theory and subsequently observes chosen phenomena in real-life English lessons.

In the first part of this thesis, the theoretical background was set. This part was divided into three chapters, each dealing with a different part of English language teaching with the use of digital technologies. The first chapter looked at the characteristics of a teacher. This chapter was rather general, therefore, the English language teaching was not taken into consideration. In this chapter, the qualities of a teacher were observed together with definitions of their competences. These competences were viewed from two angles. The first one looked at them as competences of the teacher and the second one dealt with the key competences of learners. All of the competences were briefly described. However, one of them is more important for this thesis. Therefore, the digital competence was described in more detail in the last subchapter.

The second chapter dealt with English language teaching. Firstly, the generally defined terms from the previous chapter were put into the English language teaching context. In other words, the qualities and competences of English language teacher were listed there. Subsequently, the concept of language teaching was observed and the term was defined. To describe the concept of ELT even further, the term was put into the historical context where the changes in methods, and aims were described. There, the development of using digital technologies in English language teaching was also mentioned. Next, the term ELT was also looked at from the point of view of curricular documents, in which the current aims are described. The main aim of current language learning is the development of communicative competence which was also described in this chapter. Finally, the strategic context where the changes that may or should be made in the future in order to make English language teaching and learning even more effective were described.

Finally, in the last chapter of the theoretical part of this thesis, the possible use of digital technologies in language learning is observed. In this chapter, the digital technologies that may be used are named, and the possible ways of using them in English lessons are mentioned. These technologies are observed from two points of view. One of them is connected to communicative competence. In that subchapter, the digital technologies which may be used for its development were mentioned and with the use of literature, some examples of their use were set. The next

point of view concerned language skills. Even in this subchapter, the technologies were named and their possible ways of use were mentioned.

After defining all essential theoretical terms. The research could take place. The research was described in detail in the practical part which was divided into four chapters. The first chapter was dedicated to the description of the research methodology. The mixed type of research was conducted with the use of two methods: group interviews and observations. Both methods were piloted and in both tools, there were slight changes made after the piloting. Subsequently, both methods could be used to gain the needed data. As was said, the data were collected from three teachers in a basic school.

First, the interview showed that the subjective attitudes of the teachers towards DT in education are rather positive. However, they were also aware of the limitations that the use of DT may have. Second, during the observations, the statements of the teachers were observed and it underlined their statements from the interview. Moreover, with the use of observations, it was possible to see, if the teachers use the DT correctly, based on the information from the theoretical part of this thesis. There, it showed that the DT was mostly used in the right manner and the teachers may be considered digitally competent. However, not all aspects of DC were seen in all activities. For instance, the differentiation with the use of DT was seen rather scarcely.

Resumé

Tato diplomová práce pojednává o problematice digitálních kompetencí učitelů na základní škole. Je rozdělena do dvou hlavních částí. V první části práce jsou definovány a popsány teoretické pojmy učitel, výuka anglického jazyka a digitální třída. Následně v části druhé, práce zkoumá přístupy k digitálním technologiím u vybraných učitelů základní školy. Navíc také zkoumá, zda tyto technologie ve svých hodinách využívají a zda je využívají k účelům, které jsou popsány v teoretické části.

Každá z těchto dvou částí je rozdělena na další kapitoly a podkapitoly. První kapitola teoretické části se zabývá obecnými pojmy učitel a jeho kompetence. V podkapitolách této kapitoly lze najít informace o kvalitách, které by jakýkoliv učitel měl mít. Následně jsou rozebrány jeho kompetence jak z pohledu kompetencí učitele, tak z pohledu klíčových kompetencí žáků, neboť učitel, který má své žáky směřovat k získávání těchto klíčových kompetencí by je sám měl mít dostatečně rozvinuté. V poslední podkapitole je následně detailněji prozkoumána a popsána samotná digitální kompetence. V této podkapitole je digitální kompetence rozdělena na šest částí, popisujících šest oblastí vzdělávání s digitálními technologiemi. Těmito oblastmi jsou profesní zapojení, digitální zdroje, výuka s technologiemi, hodnocení za použití digitálních technologií, podpora žáků a podpora jejich digitálních kompetencí.

Druhá kapitola teoretické části následně pojednává o výuce anglického jazyka. Ta je v této kapitole definována a následně zasazena do historického, kurikulárního a strategického kontextu. V podkapitole zabývající se historickým kontextem lze vyčíst, že výuka anglického jazyka prošla mnohými změnami v oblasti cílů a metod výuky. To samé lze říci o způsobech využití digitálních technologií využívaných k výuce angličtiny. V kurikulárním kontextu je popsán pohled současných kurikulárních dokumentů na výuku anglického jazyka. V neposlední řadě, v podkapitole pojednávající o strategickém kontextu výuky anglického jazyka jsou zmíněny také plánované změny výuky do budoucna. V této kapitole jsou také dříve definované obecné pojmy učitel a jeho kompetence zasazeny do kontextu výuky anglického jazyka. Jinými slovy, v této kapitole je popsán učitel anglického jazyka a následně komunikační kompetence, která je považována za cíl současného učení se cizímu jazyku.

V poslední kapitole teoretické části jsou digitální technologie zasazeny do výuky anglického jazyka. Tato kapitola rozděluje použití technologií ve výuce do dvou částí. První z nich je použití technologií k rozvoji komunikační kompetence. V této podkapitole jsou zmíněny konkrétní aplikace či webová prostředí, která je možné vy výuce využít. Navíc tato podkapitola také zmiňuje možné způsoby, jak tyto technologie využít. V druhé části je potom na využití

technologií nahlíženo z pohledu rozvoje řečových dovedností. Stejně jako v předchozí podkapitole, i v této jsou uvedeny konkrétní příklady aplikací společně s možnými způsoby jejich využití v hodinách anglického jazyka.

Po definování výše zmíněných teoretických pojmů bylo možné, provézt výzkum, který zjišťuje, jaký mají učitelé na prvním i druhém stupni základní školy přístup k technologiím a zda a jakým způsobem tyto technologie využívají ve svých hodinách. Provedený výzkum je popsán v praktické části této diplomové práce. Tato část je rozdělena na čtyři hlavní kapitoly.

V první kapitole je detailně popsána metodologie výzkumu. Jsou zde poskytnuty informace o místě konání výzkumu. Nicméně, z důvodu zachování anonymity ústavu zde nejsou žádné detailní informace o názvu či poloze školy. Co však detailně popsáno je, je vybavení školy. Toto vybavení je zde uvedeno, neboť zkoumaný ústav musí mít nezbytné vybavení pro zkoumání využití digitálních technologií. Další součásti výzkumu, které jsou uvedeny v této kapitole jsou výzkumné otázky a také typy výzkumu. Při určování typu výzkumu lze hovořit o smíšeném přístupu, kdy je využit jak kvalitativní, tak kvantitativní způsob zkoumání. S tím také souvisí využité metody a výzkumné nástroje výzkumu. I ty byly v této kapitole detailně popsány. V neposlední řadě, v této kapitole byly popsány také způsoby analýzy dat.

Pro potřeby tohoto výzkumu byly využity dvě metody sběru dat. První z nich je skupinový rozhovor, který je detailně popsán v druhé kapitole praktické části práce. V této kapitole je nejprve zmíněna typologie otázek, které se v rozhovoru mohou či dokonce musí vyskytnout. Následně je popsán proces pilotování předpřipravených otázek k rozhovoru spolu se změnami, které bylo nutné po pilotáži provést. Po popsání pilotáže následuje podkapitola, která se zabývá samotným procesem sběru dat. Následně, v poslední podkapitole jsou rozebrány a shrnuty výsledky zkoumání získané touto metodou. Způsob, kterým byla tato data definována se nazývá kódování. Při procesu kódování bylo nutné nejprve data projít a rozdělit jednotlivé informace do určitých částí. Těmto částem následně byly přiřazeny kódy a díky nim bylo následně možné vyvodit určité závěry.

Druhou metodou, kterou tento výzkum využívá jsou observace. Stejně jako kapitola pojednávající o metodě rozhovoru, také tato kapitola je rozdělena na tři podkapitoly. Stejně jako u předchozí kapitoly, také zde se první podkapitola zabývá pilotáží výzkumných nástrojů. Jinými slovy, je zde popsán proces pilotáže observačních listů spolu s nutnými změnami, které bylo po pilotáži provést. V dalších částech této kapitoly je opět popsán proces sběru dat a následně jsou tato data analyzována. Shrnutí výsledků výzkumu touto výzkumnou metodou je

poskytnuto ve třetí podkapitole. Co se týče analýzy dat, zde žádná zvláštní metoda využita nebyla, neboť zanášením informací do observačních listu již vzniká kódování, které lze následně pouze rozebrat a shrnout. Nicméně, pro lepší přehlednost byly vytvořeny grafy s četnostmi použití digitálních technologií v hodinách.

Po pospání použitých metod a analýze nasbíraných dat, byla následně tato data dále analyzována a interpretována na základě výzkumných otázek. Tato analýza je rozebrána v poslední kapitole této práce. Výzkum ukázal, že na otázku, jaké jsou subjektivní pocity a přístupy vybraných učitelů základní školy k digitálním technologiím lze odpovědět, že převládají pozitivní pocty. Nicméně, kantoři vyjádřily určité výhrady. Tyto výhrady se týkaly převážně množství nových technologií, se kterými se setkávají a také závislosti, která může na digitálních technologiích vzniknout. Druhá výzkumná otázka se týkala toho, zda učitelé technologie ve svých hodinách využívají. Jak rozhovor, tak observace ukázaly, že všichni tři kantoři ve svých hodinách technologie využívají. Nicméně, jak již naznačovaly výsledky rozhovoru, observace potvrdily, že četnost využití těchto technologií v hodině se značně liší u každého ze zkoumaných kantorů. Poslední otázka zkoumala, zda učitelé používají technologie ve shodě s definicemi digitální kompetence z teoretické části. Zde je možno odpovědět, že žádný z učitelů technologie ve svých hodinách nepoužil jiným způsobem, než bylo napsáno v teoretické části. Nicméně, se také ukázalo, že při poskytování zpětné vazby za pomoci digitální technologie učitelé nevyužívají její plný potenciál.

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Appendices

Appendix A – The interview

1. Kolik máte let praxe?

2. Jaké kvality by podle vás měl mít dobrý učitel?

3. Máte tušení, co znamená digitální competence?

Professional engagement

1. Využíváte DT ke kominikaci s žáky, rodiči či kolegy?

2. Jaké technologie/platformy využíváte?

3. Jaký je váš přístup k novým technologiím?

4. Myslíte, že s jejich vývojem zvládáte držet krok?

Digital resources

5. Kde si sháníte digitální materiály pro výuku anglického jazyka?

6. Mohly byste uvést příklady těchto zdrojů?

7. Co podle vás musí mít kvalitní material pro výuku anglického jazyka, aby byl vhodný a pro žáky přínosný?

8. Myslíte si, že je důležité vyhledávat nové způsoby zapojení DT do výuky?Jak to děláte?

Teaching and Learning

1. Myslíte si, že využíváte DT ve své výuce často? Jak často?

2. K jaké části komunikační competence si myslíte, že využíváte DT nejčastěji?

3. Myslíte si, že využíváním DT činíte výuku zajímavější a porporujete samostatné učení žáků?

4. Proč si to myslíte? Můžete uvést příklady?

Assessment

1. Myslíte si, že je možné žáky hodnotit za využití DT? Dát jim jak okamžitou zpětnou vazbu, tak hodnotit jejich celkové počínání například v průběhu hodiny?

2. Jakým způsobem podle vás může toto hodnocení probíhat?

3. Vyhovuje vám okamžítá zpětná vazba, kterou je schopná DT žákům poskytnout?

4. Jaká vidíte v používání DT k hodnocení žáků pozitiva či negative?

Empowering

1. Jaký je váš přístup k využívání DT k individualizaci a diferenciaci?

2. Myslíte si, že tímto stylem DT využíváte? Uveďte prosím příklad.

3. Myslíte si, že v hodinách angličtiny využíváte DT k aktivizaci žáků?

4. Jakým způsobem DT k aktivizaci využíváte?

Facilitating

1. Myslíte si, že DT mohou mít na žáky take negativní vliv? Jaký?

2. Přijde vám, že se tyto negativní vlivy objevují take v hodinách angličtiny?

3. Myslíte si, že podporujete své žáky v používání DT take mimo školu?

4. Jakým způsobem je v tom podporujete?

1. Jaký je váš celkový přístup k DT v hodinách angličtiny (popřípadě porovnat s jiným předmětem)

2. Na základě vašich odpovědí, myslíte si, že jste digitálně kompetentní?

Appendix B – Example of highlighting information for coding

Appendix C – Examples of codes

YP U1 27

YP U2 28

YP U3 26

KU U1 RP ZJ

KU U2 S ZJ

KU U3 KFO ZJ

DK U1, U2, U3 A

N U1 R+, M-, C+

N U2 R+, M+, C+

N U3 R+, M-, C-

A U1 MOFKQWWoL

A U2 MOFKQWWoLD

A U3 MOFDL

Appendix D – Empty observation sheet

Class:	Observation sheet – Digital technologies in English language lessons			Date:
Cíl a popis aktivity				
Byla použita DT?				
Jaké DT byly použity?				
Získal žák prostřednictvím DT zpětnou vazbu? Kolikrát?				
Použití DT pro individualizaci?		Způsob		
Použití DT k rozvoji komunikační kompetence?	Lingvistická	Sociolingvistická		Pragmatická
Použití DT k rozvoji jazykových dovedností?	Poslech	Mluvení	Čtení	Psaní

Komentář:

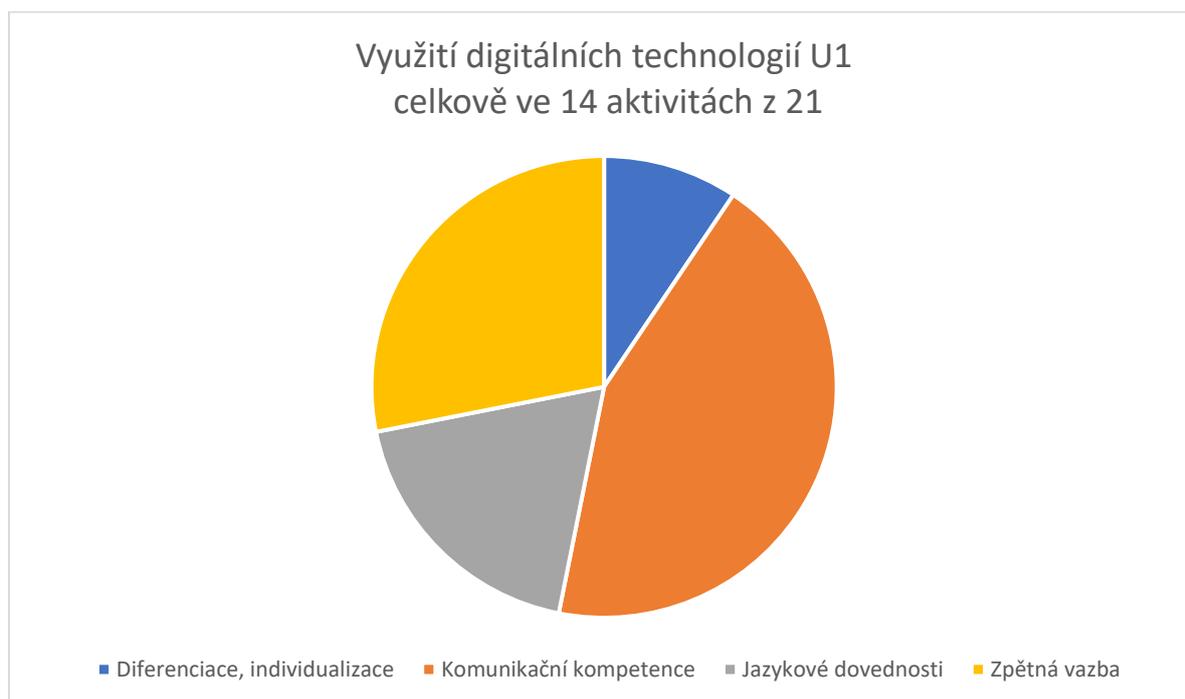Appendix E – Example of filled observation sheet of activity where digital technology was used

Appendix F – Example of filled observation sheet of activity where digital technology was not used

Appendix G – Number of occurrences of DT in observations U1

Využití digitálních technologií U1
celkově ve 14 aktivitách z 21

■ Diferenciace, individualizace ■ Komunikační kompetence ■ Jazykové dovednosti ■ Zpětná vazba

Appendix H - Number of occurrences of DT in observations U2

Využití digitálních technologií U2
celkově v 17 aktivitách z 23

■ Diferenciace, individualizace ■ Komunikační kompetence ■ Jazykové dovednosti ■ Zpětná vazba
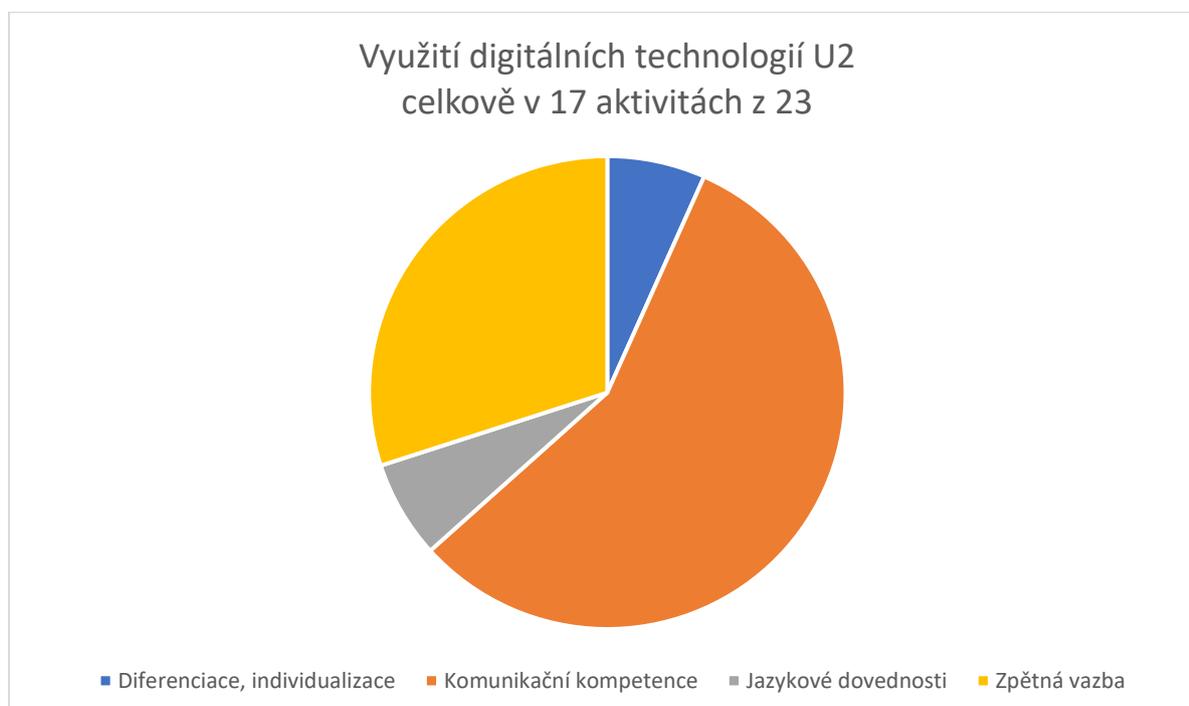
Appendix I - Number of occurrences of DT in observations U3

Využití digitálních technologií U3
celkově v 13 aktivitách z 27

■ Diferenciace, individualizace ■ Komunikační kompetence ■ Jazykové dovednosti ■ Zpětná vazba